THE
TEACHING OF FRENCH
IN THE
PRIMARY SCHOOL
A STUDY OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING -
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO EDINBURGH

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SUMMARY

This study is concerned with an extensive investigation of in-service training for French teaching in the primary school. It has been carried out within the context of the Edinburgh French programme. Language improvement is the major concern of this work and the methodology of language instruction is only dealt with in its practical aspect.

A review of foreign language teaching in primary education (FLP) in the U.S.A. and in Britain reveals a common pattern in their mode of staffing. The majority of FLP programmes have been staffed by the classroom teachers on the premise that non-specialists can teach with the help of specially designed materials. However, both countries have experienced difficulties in maintaining programmes of sufficiently high standard. The review reveals the quantitative and qualitative inadequacy of teacher-training in the U.S.A. In Britain, a great number of training schemes have been organised for the in-service classroom teachers of primary French (PF). It appears, however, that no specific research has been carried out into this form of

training. Because the requirements of PF teaching have not been analysed in linguistic terms, it has not been possible to define the language objectives of the training courses and this has led to their questionable relevance to FLP. Moreover, owing to a non-selective policy of staffing, the teachers' language ability and their attitude to PF teaching are not currently assessed although these two factors have emerged as being positively related to pupil-achievement.

The Edinburgh PF programme, based at its inception on the same lines as other programmes, has gradually moved towards a more selective policy of staffing and the development of a new form of teacher-training. However, its evolution has been slowed down by lack of official support.

Field experience indicates the lines along which a training course should be designed in terms of method and language content. It also reveals that among all the factors at work in in-service training the trainees play a major role. It is suggested that the efficiency of adequate training materials is subordinate to the trainees' motivation in learning and teaching the language as well as to their linguistic ability.

A job-analysis carried out in the primary schools provides a significant sub-group of the language items incorporated in the training course materials. It establishes a range of situation-types and a list of the syntactic markers of the restricted language under study. A grammar of the data designed to meet the specific requirements of PF training is outlined which consists of 9 phrase-

structure rules and 20 transformational rules.

Testing the trainees demonstrates that homogeneous training groups cannot be obtained on the basis of self-selection or academic qualifications in French. It also shows that training does not necessarily result in ability to teach, a fact that underlies the necessity of selection to avoid a high rate of wastage. The principles of selection are described and the low value of academic qualifications as a predictor of success indicated. The use of testing for diagnostic purposes is exemplified. Testing demonstrates the value of the experimental training materials in producing a statistically significant increase in the trainees' ability in the relevant language.

Testing the primary pupils and comparing their results with their teachers' ability in the language indicates that linguistic competence is not the only important factor in teacher-efficiency. It must be associated with a positive attitude towards PF teaching. Such efficiency also seems to be related to the rate at which the primary course material is taught.

Finally, a state description of a group of trainees as supplied by a pilot questionnaire reveals the wide range of values obtained by the respondents as regards their ability, attitude and age. This provided evidence that while there was a core of enthusiastic teachers, others disagreed with the PF programme and their participation in it. The trainees' assessment of the course showed a marked preference for a form of training strictly relevant

to their professional needs. The investigation has not shown any relationship between knowledge of French and attitude to PF teaching and has failed to isolate the components of teacher-attitude.

The last part of this study describes the course materials designed on the basis of the information collected during the preliminary study. It also specifies its three-fold objectives: linguistic, behavioural and pedagogical.

The study may be regarded as a practical contribution to the planning of in-service PF training by demonstrating its feasibility as a source of PF teachers and specifying its limits as regards the trainees' entry behaviour in terms of language and attitude.

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APPENDIX (VOLUME II)

INTRODUCTION

In 1962, UNESCO initiated a meeting of experts to review for the first time the problem of teaching foreign languages at the primary stage of education. This meeting officially sanctioned an educational movement which, for the last decade, had been spreading throughout the primary schools of various countries, stirring up as much interest as it raised controversy.

The main conclusion reached by the UNESCO experts was positive. They recognised foreign languages in primary schools as a practical proposition that might be of educational value and produce worthwhile results. However, they underlined the fact that the introduction of a foreign language into primary schools[1] was a complex and costly operation that required careful planning. They also coupled their approval with a demand for research into the many theoretical and practical problems that were raised by this new trend in language teaching. Not least among the problems requiring research, was the staffing of FLP programmes since, in most cases, classroom teachers,

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[1] Henceforth to be referred to as FLP.

unskilled in the language taught, had to carry out the instruction. In-service training was therefore recommended as a means of fulfilling the immediate demand for competent teachers.

It was the task of a second international meeting convened in 1966 to make more specific recommendations for investigation. This meeting was sponsored jointly by UNESCO, the UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg and the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe. Once again, as in 1962, the shortage of language teachers and the need for training was noted (Stern, 1969: 6). And once again, a few suggestions for research into the recruiting and training of teachers were put forward (Gefen; Carrol in Stern, 1969).

The warnings issued by UNESCO with regard to staffing and training difficulties were echoed in Britain where large scale FLP teaching was being developed at the time of the first UNESCO meeting in Hamburg. In 1962, the Nuffield Foundation, which was, then, supporting a project for French teaching to young children, known as 'the Pilot Scheme' recommended the development of new forms of teacher-training as an essential aspect of the project (Schools Council, 1966: 1). In 1964, the Chairman of the Steering Committee for the Pilot Scheme wrote to all chief education officers drawing their attention to the importance of adequate planning and supervision by the local authority (ibid: 13).

Some years later, in 1968, the Committee on Research

and Development in Modern Languages (Report, 1968)[1] expressed concern that the finding of an adequate supply of competent teachers remained a major problem. Consequently it was suggested (ibid: 3) that "a solution to the shortage of teachers would probably have to be found in a national or regional plan of training".

Although, as has been indicated, the complexity of FLP staffing and training had been stressed in higher educational circles, their warnings and recommendations remained without much practical effect at the level of the individual FLP programme. As we near the end of a decade of FLP experiments in Britain, the staffing difficulties of other countries outlined by UNESCO in 1962 have occured in this country, too. Although some areas report worthwhile results in pupils' achievement, the quality of teaching carried out by classroom teachers in other areas has been seriously questioned; indeed in some cases the FLP programmes have had to be reduced or terminated altogether because of staffing inadequacies. It will be shown in the course of this study that in-service training, which was intended to be the main source of FLP teachers has not always achieved the expected results. It would be misleading to suggest that training has been neglected since most Local Education Authorities concerned are reported as having a FLP training scheme (Schools Council, 1966). What is suggested here, however, is that their

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1 The Committee on Research and Development in Modern Languages was set up in October 1964 by the Secretary of State for Education and Science and the Secretary of State for Scotland.

efficiency has not always been equal to their number. None of them appears to be based on sound linguistic analysis of FLP requirements. The new forms of training recommended by the Nuffield Foundation in 1962 are still awaiting development. It seems that FLP training has been based on the same assumptions as those made for other teacher-training courses in such subjects as mathematics, decimalization, physical education, handwork, etc. The first of these assumptions is that there is a well defined subject-content included in a teaching syllabus. The second assumption is that the task for which they are being trained is well within the professional duties of any ordinary primary teacher. It follows, therefore, that the question of the teacher's own likes or dislikes does not arise to any significant extent. The final assumption is that course attendance automatically leads to teaching ability in the subject. We shall deal with these assumptions at length in the course of this work.

In September 1970, the Department for Education and Science extended the training facilities organised for the Pilot Scheme teachers to all local authorities in England and Wales. This decision partially fulfilled the 1968 recommendations of the Committee on Research and Development in Modern Languages regarding the organisation of training on a national or regional level.

However, we believe that this particular effort to organise training on a national level is only one step in the right direction. It is our contention, as we

shall try to justify in the course of this study, that a meaningful approach to FLP training implies much more than purely organisational decisions. It is not sufficient to open courses and to send teachers on them, it is also essential to decide what the content of these courses should be. There is no indication, however, that basic research has ever been undertaken at national level in order:- (i) to investigate FLP training requirements in terms of linguistic and behavioural objectives, (ii) to plan a relevant course syllabus and (iii) to design training materials in the same way as has been done for the young learners. On the contrary, there is evidence that decisions concerning content and methods of training have been left to individual training centres either in this country or in France.[1]

We have noted the absence of centrally organised research into the use of non-specialist teachers. This is at variance with official assertions that teachers are a vital element in FLP programmes. The hit-or-miss methods which have been used to recruit and train for these programmes are surprising in view of the vast amount of financial resources and human effort that have been bestowed on the production of course materials for children by central bodies such as the Nuffield Foundation.

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[1] The isolation in which teacher-trainers find themselves has occasionally been expressed in professional journals such as NALA (the Journal of the National Association of Language Advisers) (Part I Ch.2 Section 6.5 afterwards referred to as I: 2.6.5).

One is naturally led to wonder at the difficult situation in which many FLP programmes find themselves today because of the very difficulties in staffing which they had been warned against in the early 'sixties. How is it that some headmasters, who would have laughed at the suggestion that piano classes could be held by teachers unable to play any instrument, were yet able to accept the idea that teachers could teach a language without any knowledge of it? There certainly is no single answer to that query. There appears to have been an undercurrent of opinion which, for years, has held the teacher to be an ancillary part of a FLP programme.[1]

Many of the reasons that might be put forward to explain the discrepancy between official recommendations and actual practice can only be tentative. However, our aim in this study is not to achieve historical precision for its own sake but rather to try to understand enough of the background to the FLP movement to be able to propose a practical solution.

Firstly, when studying the background to FLP teaching in Britain one cannot fail to be struck by the similarity of the programmes implemented in Britain with those launched in the States under the name of FLES (Foreign language in the Elementary School). Both countries have

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[1] There is little published information to support this belief. However it has received confirmation recently in the national Press (Observer Magazine, April 30, 1972). In this issue, the Director of the National Association of Language Advisers was quoted as having expressed his belief that many schools had the idea that "it was possible to teach French without knowing any".

encountered difficulties in staffing. In this connection there is evidence that in both countries there have been cases of a premature expansion of language teaching before there was an adequate supply of teachers. Reports from the States that "some programmes are being discontinued or reduced because of the absence of adequate staffing" (Stern, 1967: 49) or statements about the precarious position and the poor quality of some programmes (Andersson, 1969) might have been written about some British programmes. The analogy that can be drawn between the staffing patterns in both countries will warrant a more detailed study of the FLES movement in the course of this work.

It is the contention of the author that the trend that gave rise to so many uncontrolled FLP programmes in Britain in the early 'sixties was directly under the influence of the FLES movement. It appears that the various warnings given to administrators in the early 'sixties were not able to counteract the powerful effect of the American example on an educational scheme which was ready to receive it. It may be that these warnings came too late. At the time when they were issued public opinion had already accepted that there was a national need for foreign languages. In Scotland, for example, French had been introduced into 25 education authority schools by 1962. Moreover, the miracles that could be achieved in the classroom by the introduction of mechanical devices such as tape recorders, had already been widely

publicised, thus contributing enormously to the wave of enthusiasm for language teaching.

Pressure for more language teaching was accentuated by the growth of international or purely European organisations as well as by Britain's application to join the European Community. During the years 1961 and 1962, the European Ministers of Education had emphasised the need for language teaching and had passed a resolution to introduce a modern language for all pupils from the age of ten in the nineteen seventies.

In Britain, a report of the Annan Committee, a Government appointed committee (1962), stressed the advantages of regular teaching of a modern language in primary schools.

What effect could any warnings of educationalists have at a time when the need for expanding the teaching of language was being expressed so forcefully by so many prestige groups?

It is possible, too, that the effect of official warnings against a too rapid expansion of FLP may have been weakened because they were made in the context of alternative suggestions. For example, whereas in the report of the UNESCO experts (Stern, 1967: 83) administrators were cautioned against "belittling the high level of knowledge and technique that is required from the teacher", they were also advised on the following page of the same report that "without waiting for the training of teachers to be adjusted to this new situation

there (were) short term measures that (could) be taken" (ibid: 84). These measures were to be found in the production of adequate teaching materials and in the use of mechanical devices which could make up for a defective language knowledge" (ibid: 85). Examples were even given of "the surprisingly good results that teachers who are not linguists can attain in their classes with the help of these devices" (ibid.). Thus, the idea emerged from these various statements and examples that non-specialist FL teaching was a practical proposition at primary level. It is undoubtedly this idea that led many education administrators, hard pressed by public opinion, to introduce FLP teaching in their areas. However justified the principle of non-specialised teaching may have been, the degree of non-specialisation that could be accepted while still productive of efficient teaching was never considered. This omission may have been at the root of some of the difficulties encountered in the years following the beginning of the FLP movement.

The staffing difficulties and the struggle for quality in FLP teaching have often been interpreted as evidence that FLP teaching was unrealistic and bound to fail if it relied on non-specialist teachers. However, we hold that such a conclusion would be premature until comparative studies of specialist as against non-specialist teaching are carried out. Doubts have equally been cast upon the value of in-service training but since it is likely to

remain the main source of supply for a number of years, it warrants more thorough investigation than it has received in the past.

It is the purpose of this work to explore the feasibility of training in-service primary staff for Primary French teaching.[1] In particular, we have tried to lay down guidelines as to what a training course should contain and how it should be conducted. We have also attempted to determine which teachers could be trained. It is hoped that such information may be of use as a basis for the planning of future in-service training programmes for PF teachers.

There are three parts to this study which grew out of our experience in training teachers for the Edinburgh PF programme. In the first part the exact nature of the problems involved is identified by a review of the literature dealing with American and British programmes. In the second part, the background information on the factors at work in the context of the Edinburgh programme has been collected as a basis for teacher-course planning. The third part deals with the experimental materials which have been specifically designed for PF training.

Two aspects of the study should be underlined. First of all, although the Edinburgh French programme shares many of the features present in other American and English programmes,[2] the practical conclusions drawn from it should be limited to the context within which the study was made. Secondly, the aspect of the work that one should bear in mind is its exploratory nature. Owing to the dearth of previous

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1 Henceforth to be referred to as PF.

2 See Part I, Chapters 1 and 2.

studies on the subject we have been led to carry out an investigation of an extensive rather than an intensive character in order to establish the main components of the problem. Moreover, this study has developed in a teaching situation which underwent several major changes in the course of the investigation. Finally, our investigation was curtailed when, unexpectedly, the PF programme in Edinburgh almost came to a halt in 1969-1970. All this accounts for the tentative character of our conclusions.

We are certainly well aware that more rigorous research on more programmes will have to be undertaken before our results can be fully validated and their applicability confidently extended beyond the bounds of Edinburgh.

PART I

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT PRIMARY LEVEL:

A REVIEW OF THE SITUATION TO-DAY

SOME PRELIMINARY DEFINITIONS

The status of the foreign language

The term 'foreign languages in primary education' covers a number of different contexts. Four categories of situations have been identified (Stern, 1967: 5) according to how necessary a country regards the inclusion of a foreign language in its school system.

At one end of the scale, one finds those countries in which the foreign language "is mandatory as a *lingua franca* to serve as a common medium of communication and instruction" (*ibid.*). This is often the case in the developing countries of Asia and Africa.

The second category includes those countries in which two or more languages co-exist officially, e.g. Belgium, Switzerland, Canada.

The third category includes countries where the national language is not of wide distribution, e.g. The Netherlands, Bulgaria, Hungary.

At the other end of this scale of necessity are the countries whose national language is one of the world languages (e.g. English, French, Spanish ...). In these countries, the teaching of a foreign language to younger

children is not a linguistic necessity but a matter of educational policy: "it is regarded as beneficial for the individual child or as socially desirable for the community (ibid.). It is the study of foreign language teaching in this last category which is the object of the present work.

Primary Education

The term 'primary education' also needs to be defined since it has different meanings in different educational systems. In the present study, the term 'primary' refers to the early phase of compulsory education, i.e. the education of younger children. It is impossible to state what is, in general, the upper age limit for this category of young learners since it varies from one country to another. In Scotland, the educational context with which we are mainly concerned, the term 'primary' refers to children in compulsory education below the age of twelve.

Experimental and large scale programmes

The teaching of a foreign language in primary education has been experimented with in many countries but most programmes have been restricted to a few selected schools and have often been taught by language specialists, e.g. the Berlin Pilot Project which started in 1964 in six primary schools. Some of these programmes have gradually been extended to include more and more schools. We shall use the term 'experimental' to refer to those programmes that are limited to certain schools within one educational authority.

'Large-scale programmes', in contrast to experimental

ones, involve either all the schools under one state educational authority or such an important number of them that language specialists can no longer be used exclusively. In this study we are only concerned with this type of teaching.

It appears that the U.S.A. and Britain are the two countries with the longest history of 'large-scale' foreign language programmes. This part of the work outlines the situation in these two countries in so far as it provides information on modes of staffing and systems of training.

CHAPTER 1

FLES PROGRAMMES IN THE UNITED STATES

1.1 Historical background

1.1.1 Early experiments

The teaching of foreign languages in America goes as far back as 1702 when German was taught in the Church schools of the German communities (Andersson, 1969: 58). In the nineteenth century German was introduced on a large scale in many American cities. Bagster-Collins (1930) reports, for instance, that Cincinatti introduced German into elementary grades (i.e. 'primary schools') as early as 1840. In 1872 in Cleveland, Ohio, one third of all elementary pupils attended German classes (ibid.). In 1854, French was introduced into New York schools along with German and a total of 21,005 pupils are reported to have enrolled. While some programmes were only of short duration, others existed for half a century or longer. Andersson (ibid.) estimates that one million Americans or more had received early instruction in German and other languages before the end of the First World War. He suggests that, while these early experiments "never came

to be highly valued by the mass of the population", they served as a clear demonstration that the learning of a foreign language in primary schools could produce good results when it was well taught. However, the author stresses the fact that "as in our day, the supply of adequately qualified teachers was far from sufficient" and the quality of teaching was often mediocre.

1.1.2 The growth of elementary foreign language teaching between the two wars

The growth of elementary foreign language teaching was slow after the First World War when isolationism was a current political attitude in America. Only a few programmes were started in the 'twenties and 'thirties, among them the famous Cleveland French programme of 1921.

1.1.3 Post war situation

Only a sprinkling of foreign language programmes for primary school children were in existence by 1945 but some of them, like the Los Angeles Spanish programme, were very ambitious. This programme, started in 1943, involved all children from kindergarten to grade six on a city-wide basis and made use of the classroom teachers (Andersson, 1953: 15).

However, the years following World War II provided a generally favourable climate towards the study of other languages. This trend paved the way for Earl J. McGrath's call to action in 1952. Dr. McGrath, then U.S. Commissioner of Education, addressing the annual meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association, urgently advocated the study of a foreign language in elementary school. In his now historic address, McGrath (1952: 205ff) proposed that "there be complete reconsideration of the

place of foreign language study in American elementary education" and he suggested that for social, political and international reasons as many American children as possible be given the opportunity to learn a foreign language." He asserted that this opportunity could be extended to hundreds of thousands of children with a little ingenuity and determination.

Also in 1952, the Modern Language Association obtained a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation "to investigate the role that foreign language learning should play in American life" (Alkonis et al., 1961). K. Mildenberger (1954) conducted under this programme the first survey of Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools which he, for convenience, abbreviated to FLES.

In 1958, Congress passed the National Defense Education Act which greatly contributed to the consolidation of the FLES movement since this Act emphasised that ability to communicate with other people in their native languages was a matter of national self-interest and security.

1.1.4 Psycholinguistic context

The need for more language instruction, however strongly felt, might never have given rise to the rapid growth of FLES had the psycholinguistic context not provided evidence that early language learning was both sound and feasible.

A good case for the advisability of an early start on psychological and neurological grounds was presented in various works. Gesell and Ilg (1946) suggested that the development of children between four and ten was

favourable to second-language learning. Penfield (1953), a Canadian neurologist, insisted that use ought to be made of the 'plasticity' of the child's brain. His views that the brain has a biological time-table of language learning and his plea to parents and educators not to waste that capacity for the acquisition of new speech mechanisms, have received as much prominence as Earl McGrath's call for action (see 1.1.3). These views were taken up at a meeting of the Modern Language Association in 1956. This conference reached the conclusion that on the basis of the child's physiology and psychology, "the optimum age for beginning the continuous learning of a second language seems to fall within the span of ages four through eight, with superior performance to be anticipated at ages eight, nine, ten. In this early period the brain seems to have the greatest plasticity and specialized capacity needed for acquiring speech."[1] All the evidence available at the time seemed to point towards the idea that in childhood conditioned learning prevailed while conceptual learning was still at a minimum.

The views expressed by Penfield and his colleagues were in agreement with the behaviouristic view of language learning theory predominant at that time: e.g. (i) "the acquisition of oral and aural ability in a second language (was) primarily a mechanical rather than an intellectual process" (Agard and Dunkel, 1948), and (ii)"while behaviourist conditioning is intrinsic in all foreign language learning, it is particularly possible at the

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[1] The conference drafted this conclusion which was later expressed in the Modern Language Association FL Bulletin no. 49, 1956.

elementary level" since "the repetition so necessary to the acquisition of language habits is very well suited to children in the elementary school" (Simches and Bruno, 1960: 585).

1.2 Staffing FLES programmes

1.2.1 The problem

We have seen in the preceding section the kind of factors that contributed to the rapid growth of the FLES movement and we shall now describe the procedures used to staff the FLES programmes.

It seems evident from the literature that one of the greatest difficulties encountered by the organisers of FLES programmes has been to find a sufficient number of qualified teachers. Andersson (1969: 170) writes that "the greatest single obstacle to the growth of the FLES movement is the shortage of qualified teachers. This fact has emerged from every study. The deficiency is both quantitative and qualitative: there are not enough teachers and too many of those who do teach are not fully qualified."

One of the most enlightening documents on the situation of FLES in the nineteen fifties is the "Inquiry into the Training of FL Teachers for Elementary Schools" (1957). This inquiry reveals that 22 states and 26 out of 84 cities consider that the main obstacle to the success of a FLES programme was the lack of qualified teachers. The main findings of this survey were taken up again some years later in a survey carried out by Alkonis et al., (1961: 217).[1]

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[1] This survey was undertaken by the Modern Language Association for the U.S. Office of Education. It was written after the authors had visited 62 school communities with reportedly good FLES programmes.

In their conclusions the authors stated that "the most obvious weakness (of FLES was) the lack of teachers with sufficient skill in the language and training in methods". The same situation was also reported on in the 1st UNESCO report (Stern, 1967: 40) where it is stated that after a decade of experiments in FLES teaching and in spite of some success many of these attempts had ended in failure. The report states that whereas "some programmes are discontinued because of the lack of qualified teachers ... other programmes in greater numbers are begun, many of them in turn doomed to die for the same reasons". Andersson (1969: 127) reiterated in the late 'sixties the precarious situation of the FLES movement which he said was "bedevilled by lack of quality".

1.2.2 Patterns of staffing

There is no single pattern used for staffing a FLES programme. Language specialists, elementary school teachers, college students, native speakers, other members of the community have all been reported as possible sources of teachers. The Oregon Inquiry[1] (1957) clearly indicates, however, that the use of the classroom teacher is the most widespread mode of staffing large-scale FLES programmes, particularly in cities. Elementary school

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1 The report was prepared for the State Department of Education, Salem, Oregon, by the Oregon Committee for the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association of America and submitted by Dr. F.F. Eaton. Questionnaires were sent to all states and territories as well as to all cities of over 100,000 inhabitants.

teachers were reported as being used for FLES in 29 out of 42 cities (69%) and in 11 out of 30 states (36%). We have been unable to obtain more recent figures from the published literature, but one can assume from the reports on the lack of quality of many FLES programmes that the tendency to use classroom teachers has not greatly changed.

1.2.3 The classroom teacher

The vast number of teachers required to carry out FLES programmes leaves little doubt as to why FLES organisers had to rely mainly on classroom teachers. This assumption is supported by the figures provided by Breunig (1960), viz: the number of FLES pupils had increased 84 times during the years 1953 to 1960. It would have been difficult to find enough language specialists to cater for this increase in elementary schools, knowing that at that time foreign language teachers were in short supply at all levels of education. Some FLES organisers, however, were reported to be drafting personnel from secondary schools and college staffs but this was regarded by Kettelkamp (1961) as a ridiculous effort "to plug one part of a dike against a flood by weakening another vital part of the structure". A few authors have explicitly stated that the large number of teachers required for FLES was the main reason for the involvement of classroom teachers. For instance, Andersson (1953: 47) stated that "it was one thing to establish a long range objective and it is another to deal with the present situation in realistic fashion. The truth is that we shall for some time have

to use the teachers that are now available". Similarly, Paul C. McRill (1961: 366) reporting on the FLES programme in Jefferson County (Col.), writes that "in the absence of an available trained staff of language teachers it was decided to begin the programme with the regular classroom teachers". The same reason for using classroom teachers is also expressed in the UNESCO report (Stern, 1967: 84).

However, other arguments for this mode of staffing are stressed in the literature. They are of an educational and pedagogical character. One advantage of the classroom teacher is that he is better acquainted with the philosophy and practice of the American school (Andersson, 1953: 48). Another advantage is that a classroom teacher "can avoid rigid compartmentization of FL instruction ..... and can bring in the FL at appropriate times during the day" (Dunkel et al., 1962: 23). In other words the integration of a FL into the primary curriculum is only possible if the classroom teacher carries out the instruction. A third advantage related to organisation rather than to teaching effectiveness is that there is no problem of time-tabling when the FL is taught by the classroom teacher. Finally, it is evident that a FLES programme that relies mainly on the classroom teachers is much cheaper than one using language specialists.

An obvious disadvantage of this mode of staffing, however, is that classroom teachers are rarely trained to

do this kind of teaching and that they often lack an adequate knowledge of the language taught (Stern, 1967: 51). Some programmes are reported as having involved teachers with no knowledge of the language at all. For instance, the Conversational Spanish programme taught over the radio to 50,000 children of Dade County was started on the assumption that the teacher knew no Spanish except what he may have learnt in class with the children (Eaton, 1957). McRill (1961) reports that the FLES programme of Jefferson County (Col.) involved 16,000 pupils and their teachers at the same time. Many of these teachers had had only a year or two of Spanish but half of them had had no previous experience with the language at all. Alkonis (1961) in her national survey of FLES practice notes that "one of the most widespread notions is that a teacher need know only a little language to teach in the elementary school .... . Just as prevalent was the idea that the teacher can learn along with the children or keep one lesson ahead of them."

1.2.4 Qualifications

The practice of using classroom teachers, many of whom have little or no knowledge of the language taught, raises the question of the qualifications that should be required for FLES teachers. We shall not discuss here the American system of teachers' certification but the quality of the instruction given by FLES teachers.

Andersson (1953) is one of the first FLES experts to have attempted to specify the necessary qualifications. He set them very high since he suggested that "the teacher

must not only talk like a native speaker but he must act and in a sense think and feel like one ..." (ibid: 45). He goes on to say that a knowledge of the language is not in itself sufficient qualification and he holds that effectiveness with children also depends upon the temperament, personality and intelligence of the teacher. However, the author admits that in practice the teachers' qualifications may not be so high. In the same publication he reports on a FLES programme which was conducted on the principle that teachers would learn along with the pupils. He is satisfied that this is congenial to the philosophy of the American school and can be done without the teacher feeling humiliated. He suggests also, and this seems in contradiction with his earlier statements, that "with some technical aids like tape-recordings and in-service training the classroom teacher can achieve notable results". However, it is noteworthy that when he reported on the same programme sixteen years later in 1969 the same author did not reiterate the view that teachers and pupils could learn together. There is evidence that this view was currently held in the early 1950's and that thereafter it was only gradually modified. The evolution of opinion as concerns teachers' qualifications is made clear by a study of the two statements of policy on FLES issued by the MLA in 1956 and 1961 (MLA 1956, 1961).

Dunkel and Pillet (1962) consider that the qualifications required by secondary school FL teachers

are germane to those for FLES teachers. Consequently, the general qualifications for secondary school teaching defined by the MLA in 1962[1] are applicable to FLES teachers. This is supported by Andersson (1969: 198, 202) who suggests that the "Guidelines for Teacher-Education Programmes" prepared by the MLA (1964 and 1966) may apply to the specialist in foreign languages at all levels. In order to make this statement relevant to his study of FLES he adds that "in the elementary school there is a clear need for specialists as well as for the classroom teachers who do the follow-up work on the specialist teacher's lesson".[2]

The question of teacher qualifications was discussed at both UNESCO meetings in Hamburg. Although not specially related to the US these discussions are of relevance to this chapter since they were most probably based on the American experience.[3] It was underlined at the 1963 meeting (Stern, 1967) that all teachers should have a good command of the language and be a good model

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1 These qualifications were first printed in PMLA, Vol. LXXVII, No. 4, Part 2 (September, 1962), p.38.

2 This rather weak statement appeared as a footnote to the MLA guidelines given in Appendix. No other suggestion about FLES teachers' qualifications is put forward in this book.

3 It should be kept in mind that at that time America was the only country with a tradition of FLES.

for pronunciation. At the second meeting (Gefen, in Stern 1969: 85) it was decided that although the ideal person to teach the target language is the classroom teacher "a teacher with certain specialist qualifications ... is to be preferred to a general teacher who is learning the second language together with his pupils and so often teaches them mistakes, unaware."

1.2.6 Classroom teacher effectiveness

Relatively little evaluation of FLES programmes has been done to assess the effectiveness of classroom teachers. We shall mention here what little has been done towards this end.

The first investigation was carried out at the University of Illinois from 1959 to 1962 by Johnston et al., (1963). Its main purpose was to determine the effectiveness of non-specialist teachers as compared to that of specialists. The two classes composing the experimental group were taught by classroom teachers unfamiliar with the language. The two other classes composing the control group were taught by language specialists. The experimental group was taught by procedures involving the use of closed circuit telecasts and the control group was taught by more traditional methods. The two groups received three years of Spanish instruction. The results show that the scores of the experimental group ranged from 64% to 94% of the scores attained by the control group, i.e. the teachers unfamiliar with the language obtained results inferior to those obtained by specialists. In some parts of the tests,

e.g. reading and writing, the difference between the means of the two groups was not significant. The authors of the investigation drew the conclusion that "elementary school teachers with no special training in a particular language can, with a minimum of daily preparation and the use of specially designed materials, successfully guide their pupils in learning that language." However, the authors underline the fact that the pupils who have been taught by elementary school teachers cannot be expected to reach as high a level of achievement in some aspects of language learning as those pupils who have been taught by well qualified specialist teachers.

Another investigation was carried out by McRill (1961) in Jefferson County (Col.). One hundred and ninety-five FLES classes taught by classroom teachers were tested to assess, among other things, the relationship between the teachers' previous experience in the language and the pupils' achievement. The results of the investigation indicated that the teacher's knowledge of the language was certainly one factor to be considered in FLES but they found that other factors were also involved in teacher effectiveness. Thus, it was reported that the effectiveness of some highly trained linguists suffered because they were over-confident and failed to learn good teaching techniques. On the other hand, untrained teachers often achieved good results because they worked harder and "made maximum use of in-service training and

available teaching aids." It was therefore concluded that the use of teachers with little or no experience in the language was a practical proposition if in-service training and special teaching aids were provided.

Garry's evaluation (Garry and Mauriello, 1960, in Stern, 1967) of various aspects of the television programme 'Parlons Français' showed that the fluency of the teacher in the language was directly related to the fluency of the pupils. It was stated that "the classes directed by moderately fluent teachers obtained significantly higher mean scores than those directed by non-fluent teachers." However, it was found that follow-up practice conducted in the classroom yielded "higher mean scores than practice based on tape-recordings taken from the sound track of the TV programme" whether the teacher was moderately fluent or not.

Similar conclusions were reached by Otto (1968) who carried out his investigation on 3 groups of a total of 340 pupils and 17 teachers all using the 'Parlons Français' course. He compared two methods of presenting the course and two modes of staffing the FLES programme with these three groups:

Group 1) the classroom teacher using TV

Group 2) a language specialist using TV

Group 3) the classroom teacher using films.

In terms of teacher-satisfaction, the author found that the language specialists were the most satisfied, followed by the classroom teachers using films because they could

preview and review them at their discretion. They also had the benefit of teacher-training films they could view at their convenience. The least satisfied were those classroom teachers who received lessons of 'Parlons Français' through television and had to carry out all preparation and follow-up themselves. 75% of these teachers had had no previous training in French and found it increasingly difficult to correct errors and provide adequate follow-up.[1]

In terms of the pupils' achievement, the same rank-order was found, with the pupils taught by specialists having the best results, those of pupils taught with films coming second and those taught by classroom teachers and TV following very far behind.[2]

It is impossible to compare the various investigations presented here since their aims and the factors at work in each of them are different. Moreover, their method of reporting often contains serious faults that makes any precise interpretation of them difficult. However, there is no doubt that they point to a general tendency, according to which the teachers' fluency is associated with that of their pupils. The decision to accept the risk of lower achievement among pupils with non-fluent teachers is a

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1 Teacher satisfaction expressed in percentage was found to be 55% for the classroom teacher using TV, 71% for those using the films and 87% for the specialists using TV.

2 Pupils' achievement expressed in percentage was found to be 38% for the classroom teacher using TV, 64% for those using the films and 80% for the specialists using TV.

matter for the FLES organisers to judge. On the whole these various investigations concluded that the use of non-specialist teachers was a practical proposition[1] provided they were given adequate teaching aids and proper teacher-training.

1.3 Teacher-training

1.3.1 Training institutions

Information obtained from the literature about FLES teacher-training in general seems to indicate a weakness in terms of quantity and quality.

"The Inquiry into the Training of FLES Teachers" (1957) revealed a deficiency in initial FLES training since only 13 of 48 States (27%) and 26 of 126 cities (20%) reported having made provisions for prospective FLES teachers in colleges or training institutions.

This deficiency was corroborated by the MLA 1959-1960 survey (Childers et al., 1960) which reported that only 24.3% of 758 institutions trained FLES teachers as well as secondary school FL teachers. It appears that the situation did not greatly change during the 1960's since in 1969 Andersson could write that only a minority of training institutions prepared FLES teachers. The author stresses that it is not that these institutions do not have the resources for converting recruits into qualified teachers but they lack inclination. He places the blame

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[1] Eriksson et al. (1964) have strongly opposed these conclusions by asserting that the hypothesis according to which each classroom teacher could teach his own class is highly impracticable. Unfortunately, they have not carried out any investigation to support this assertion.

for this situation on "the rigid system of US teachers' certification as well as the tradition that has led the liberal arts colleges and universities to shirk their responsibilities."

1.3.2 In-service training

It is generally accepted that the in-service training of FLES teachers is the only alternative to initial training. Steisel (1959) believes that "in an effort to solve the crying need for trained personnel, many summer workshops have opened throughout the country." But this belief is not supported by the Oregon Inquiry (see 1.3.1) which indicated that during the same period this form of training was not widespread in the States. Below are two of the Oregon questions on in-service training and their answers:

I. "Is there any type of in-service training for FLES teachers in the elementary schools of your State?"

	Total replies	"Yes"	"No"	Left open
States	48	5	36	7
Cities	126	20	104	2

II. "If the answer is "no" to the above question are there plans for such training?"

	Total replies	"Yes"	"No"	No answer
States	36	2	32	2
Cities	104	7	81	16

Thus only 10% of the States and 16% of the cities were providing in-service training and in addition 5.5% of the

States and 6.7% of the cities had plans for future training.

Although the conclusions of limited investigations such as those of Otto (1968) and McRill (1961) have emphasised the necessity for in-service training, Andersson in his most recent book on FLES does not even mention this type of training as a means of overcoming the shortage of teachers.

1.3.3 Quality of training

Training, whether or not it is part of the teachers' initial preparation, seems to be lacking in quality. Andersson, who remains the main source of information on FLES, writes that "the qualitative aspect of the question of training is not satisfactory" and that "programmes specifically designed to meet the needs of teachers are still the exception rather than the rule". He adds that "language departments have usually certified as being ready to teach any student having a major or minor in the regular academic programme" (ibid: 1969: 171).

On the other hand, Balakian (1961)[1] revealed that in not a single state was ability to understand and speak a particular language required as a condition of a licence to teach this language.

Reports on the method and content of training are extremely rare. Perhaps the most interesting is one by Steisel (1959)[2] which underlines the fact that the teachers

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1 Balakian conducted a two-year survey (1958-1960) into the certification requirements for Modern Language Teachers in American Public Schools. This survey was initiated by the Modern Language Association.

2 The course described by Steisel was run in 1957 under the auspices of the University of Washington (Seattle).

being trained had already started teaching and that they were just a few lessons ahead of the children. The teachers met two hours a week for eight to ten weeks. The aim was to "expose (the teachers) to the same 'units' which they would in turn present to their pupils shortly after having mastered them." The teachers' proficiency in the language is not specified but from the report it is believed that either they had never been subjected to such study or they had only had a smattering of grammar and reading vocabulary, acquired in the more-or-less distant past. Steisel writes that "two units (of the children's course) were learned by heart during every session." The teachers were asked to memorise all the units, questions and answers as well." When presenting the unit, "the instructor played the part of the third grade teacher and the students became third grade pupils learning French." When the students could understand and pronounce the text correctly, each of them in turn would address his colleagues as if they were children learning French. As regards the language content of the course, the students "were also asked to memorise such other things as the alphabet, the numbers from one to one hundred, the days of the week and the months of the year."

1.4 Discussion

1.4.1 Basis for Discussion

The situation of FLES before 1969, as it has been described in this chapter, may be summarised as follows:

1) The most important feature of FLES is that classroom

teachers have been extensively used and that many of them have had little or no knowledge of the language taught.

ii) Limited research has been carried out on the efficiency of non-specialist teaching. This has established an association between teacher fluency and pupil achievement in the language, with the result that non-specialist FLES teaching could be expected to yield lower pupil achievement than specialist teaching.

iii) Two trends of thoughts have developed from these findings. On the one hand, recommendations have been issued by specialist bodies such as the Modern Language Association of America not to start a FLES programme without being able to staff it with well-qualified teachers. On the other hand, it has been argued by some research workers and organisers that, in the face of the pressing national need for foreign languages, the results obtained by non-specialist teachers, even at a low level, were still acceptable and in any case preferable to the postponement of programmes until such time as sufficient teachers had been trained by training institutions. It was specified, however, that non-specialist teachers should be helped by specially designed FLES teaching materials and teacher-training.

1.4.2 Teacher ability

When discussing 'fluency', 'language ability' or 'qualifications' for FLES teaching - all terms that appear to be interchangeable in the literature - one is led to ask three interrelated questions about the subject:

(i) what is the operational meaning of these terms?

(ii) how can the teachers' language ability or 'fluency' be measured?

(iii) when can a teacher be said to be non-fluent or lack the necessary language ability?

A study of the relevant literature does not provide any clear answers to these questions. The notion of language ability in FLES teaching has never been specifically defined in linguistic terms. Some authors, e.g. Dunkel et al. (1962), Eriksson, (1964), have expressed the view that the general qualifications for FLES should not be very different from those needed for secondary school teaching (i.e. the standards set by the M.L.A., 1962). It is our contention in this study that such requirements are (i) unrealistic in view of the number of years required to reach secondary school teaching level and (ii) irrelevant in certain important respects. For instance, is "an ability to get the sense of what an educated native says" or "an ability to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country" (ibid.) really relevant to FLES teaching? Other authors such as Andersson (1953) and Alkonis et al. (1961) seem equally unrealistic when they state that a FLES teacher should have a native or 'near native accent'.

We believe that FLES is different in content and method from other FL teaching and is not simply a question of teaching the language at a lower level. Therefore the qualifications required for FLES teachers should also be

different. These qualifications should be considered in their own right and based on a thorough description of the linguistic demands made by FLES teaching. Such a description seems to be a preliminary requirement to any serious discussion or research into teacher-ability in the foreign language.

Secondly, since the universe of content, i.e. the area of the foreign language pertaining to FLES, has never been described, it follows that no objective means of measuring the teachers' ability in that particular area can have been designed.

We believe that the lack of a valid measuring instrument has been responsible for certain weaknesses in the arguments concerning teacher-ability.

And finally, it is evident that if teacher-ability is to be considered as relevant, then one must be able to determine readily when this ability is lacking. It appears that the notion of minimum level of ability has not been entertained in any of the FLES programmes described.

This minimum level of ability can be thought of as a threshold below which a teacher cannot be said to fulfil the language qualifications that have been decided upon. The level at which this threshold is set will depend on local circumstances.

Teacher-ability in the language can be developed by training as will be examined in the following subsection.

1.4.3 Teacher-training

Teacher-training has been recognised as essential if

FLES programmes are to involve non-specialist teachers. However, there is evidence to show that current practice has not always reflected the published concern for FLES training.

We have seen, for instance, that training in a second language is not normally a part of the initial elementary teacher-training course.

We have also noted that an important number of FLES teachers remain untrained because either there has been no provision for training in their region or because they have not attended one of the officially organised courses.

Moreover, practically nothing of the organisation, content, method and evaluation of training courses is revealed in the literature. The only descriptions that are available suggest that the course consists of a rehearsal of the FLES lessons that are to be taught, with the trainee-teachers learning them by heart. Such a training technique can hardly be considered as adequate.

No set course for teacher-training has been published that can be used in conjunction with the published FLES courses for children,[1] although no effort has been spared on the latter courses by the specialist teachers, linguists and psychologists who have drawn them up. The responsibility for developing techniques of teacher-training is left to each area concerned or sometimes to individual schools.

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[1] The "Parlons Français" course which is said to be taught to over two million pupils in the United States and Canada includes a series of teacher-training films and recordings that the classroom teacher can use on his own. However, as far as we know, it does not include materials specially designed for in-service training.

We believe that no investigation of the quality of the existing courses has been carried out. Furthermore, there is no evidence that the teachers' language ability after training has been objectively assessed, nor is there any information about the problem of under-achievement in language training apart from that of Eriksson (1964: 153). This author writes that an in-service programme will occasionally "uncover an enthusiastic teacher who, as an adult, has simply lost the power of aural perception and imitation necessary to language learning". She does not state how those under-achievers will be detected but she insists that they should be dissuaded from continuing in FLES. This point does not seem to have been taken up again in the U.S. but it was mentioned at the second conference in Hamburg (Gefen: 85, in Stern 1969). At that meeting, it was noted that "it might prove impossible to provide training for every teacher because some generally gifted teachers might be in the category of people who have no aptitude for languages". Gefen does not provide suggestions as to how or when this lack of aptitude can be detected. Should the teachers decide themselves upon their aptitudes? Alternatively, should they be selected before training or submitted to some kind of examination after training? These questions remain to be answered.

1.4.4 Teacher attitude

This review of the relevant literature has shown that the teachers' attitude to FLES has never been taken into

proper consideration. It might be concluded that the problem does not exist because it is taken for granted that (i) all the teachers involved have shared the enthusiasm for FLES shown by the community or (ii) their attitude was not considered an important factor in the success of a programme. However, two brief allusions to the subject by Alkonis (1961: 214) and Eriksson (1964; 88) show that this problem does in fact exist. Alkonis refers to the many language programmes, throughout the country, which were staffed, "willingly or otherwise", by elementary school teachers. Eriksson in her recommendations about FLES planning insists that "compulsory participation on the part of regular grade teachers whether by administrative order or by social pressure seems unjustifiable from the FL point of view as well as that of human relations".

The absence of interest shown in the literature regarding the teachers' willingness to teach may be justified in various ways. First of all, it is not customary for teachers to decide what they will or will not teach, since when undertaking initial training they have already accepted their future task in its totality. Moreover, it may be that if the teachers' willingness were to be taken into consideration, it would complicate still further the planning of FLES programmes which are already highly complicated. Similarly, by writing about it, one might add substance to the problem of the teachers' willingness, a problem which might resolve itself if left alone.

However, research should not be hampered by such practical considerations and it is believed that the problem of teacher attitude should be investigated as there is a possibility that it may be associated with teaching efficiency.

In connection with the attitude and feelings of FLES teachers unqualified in the language, it has been reported (Andersson, 1953) that American teachers do not feel humiliated by learning along with their pupils. However, we believe that there may be more than a question of humiliation involved in the feelings of the non-specialist FLES teachers in a highly developed educational system. We point to the paradoxical situation of such a teacher who, because of his inadequate knowledge of the subject, finds himself thrown back into what Beeby (1966) calls the 'Dame-school stage'. (A term that refers to the situation of a teacher who "cannot allow his pupils to take him or them beyond the beaten track of completely mechanised drills and the memorising of relatively meaningless symbols because it might lead him too easily to the brink of the unknown"). This uncreative teaching jars in a modern educational context like the American one, and may cause some teachers to feel dissatisfied. It was suggested (ibid.) that an essential condition of good, active, pupil-oriented teaching could only result from the teacher's sense of inner security due to a wide enough knowledge of his subject.

1.4.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, it appears that various aspects of the problem of staffing in FLES have not received all the attention one might have expected and that research into the problem is needed.

Parallel to the repeated statements about the importance of the teacher factor in FLES, there has been, from the very beginning, an undercurrent of opinion holding that the role of the teacher is ancillary in FLES. This situation is not easily discovered in the literature but it is occasionally touched upon.

Why have unqualified teachers been expected to teach FLES? This remains an open question. However, we have suggested that one of the reasons may be attributed to the behaviouristic context that previously dominated FL learning theory. It was held then that the development of linguistic habits was helped by overlearning language patterns and drilling which made "no pretence of being communication" (Brooks, 1960: 142). As regards language teaching, this theory resulted in heavy reliance on mechanical devices and specially designed teaching materials. The materials offered better linguistic data than the teacher because they had been prepared by specialists and recorded by native speakers. And in addition, the mechanical devices could present the necessary language drills with unwearying energy.

As a consequence, the role of the teacher was transformed. He was no longer expected to teach in the traditional sense but 'to guide' or 'to facilitate'

learning which was actually done by tape-recorded or televised teaching materials. The teacher then became according to the circumstances the echo, the loudspeaker, the "meneur de jeu" or the disciplinarian.

Now, two decades of FLES have shown that the situation is not so simple: mechanical aids, valuable as they may be, cannot accomplish miracles on their own and they cannot replace the teacher as completely as had been expected. However, it takes years to reverse a way of thinking and recent reports on FLES indicate that, owing to a continuous shortage of adequately trained teachers, FLES is still in a precarious position.

CHAPTER 2

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN BRITISH PRIMARY SCHOOLS [1]

2.1 Origin and Development of Primary French Teaching

2.1.1 The early years

In Britain, foreign language teaching to younger children has long been a tradition in the preparatory schools of the independent education system. Thus, when French teaching began to spread in the State primary system in the early nineteen sixties the problem was not to prove that younger children could learn a language but to see whether the introduction of a foreign language in State primary schools was feasible.

The Ministry of Education expressed its interest in PF teaching as early as 1956 (Ministry of Education, 1956). Sporadic teaching took place throughout the country in the following years, which partly led the Ministry of Education to state in 'Primary Education' (1959) that the conditions were rarely suitable for such teaching, thus giving little

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[1] French has been the only foreign language to be taught on a large scale in Britain and we shall henceforth refer to French in the Primary School as "PF". When French is not specifically referred to, Foreign Languages in Primary Education will be abbreviated to "FLP".

encouragement to the introduction of a second language. However in relation to this official warning, the Plowden Report (1965: 615) notes that the general climate of opinion was probably already more favourable to PF teaching than the writers of 'Primary Education' supposed. To account for this evolution of opinion, the report mentions the fact that at that time more people had begun to realise "that links with the rest of Europe ought to be strengthened" (ibid.).

Cultural links with Europe became tangible when the UK joined in the resolutions on the teaching of Modern Languages passed by the European Ministers of Education in 1961 and 1962. These resolutions strongly recommended the teaching of a foreign language to all school pupils from the age of 10. It is reported (Riddy, Schools Council, 1966) that the primary French pilot scheme was the British implementation of these resolutions.

The political and economic aspect of the link with Europe, which gave a particular urgency to the question of Modern Language teaching in the early nineteen sixties, was undoubtedly the Government decision to negotiate Britain's entry into the Common Market. The importance of FL teaching for the whole nation was strongly underlined by the Federation of British Industries (F.B.I., 1962) which stated that 'the continued neglect of foreign languages would constitute a grave danger for the future competitive position of British industry in international trade'. It was therefore recommended that 'considerations should be

given to stimulation of the teaching of modern languages in primary schools' (ibid.).

A review of the Times Educational Supplement between 1961 and 1964 reveals that foreign language teaching in general and PF teaching in particular was very much in the foreground of the educational scene during that period since references to the question appeared almost weekly. Press and BBC coverage, symposia, questions in Parliament, readers' letters, all contributed to develop and maintain the public interest. The general climate was one of enthusiasm and determination to make this change in the educational pattern feasible. Moreover, the growth of new audio-visual techniques in language teaching was also a contributory factor in laying the foundations for PF experiments. It is reported (Harding, Times Educational Supplement, June 7th, 1963) that 'great changes in language teaching are afoot; audio-visual aids and language laboratories are opening up new possibilities in oral language teaching; primary school children are beginning to chatter in French'. A similar opinion was expressed by Dr. H. Stewart Mackintosh, the Director of Education in Glasgow (Times Educational Supplement, July 6th, 1963) who wrote that 'with the laboratory, teachers would be able to teach in 3 months a language which might take 6 or 7 years to learn by ordinary methods'.

If one can find any discordant notes in the general will to make PF teaching a practical proposition, they are not many. Among them one can quote the opinion of a

reader (Hill, Times Educational Supplement, February 23rd, 1962) who thinks that ordinary children should be "protected from being experimented with by cranks who are interested in everything until someone teaches it so badly that they lose interest". The same author adds, to support his criticism of French, that in the event of Britain joining the Common Market, English would certainly become the most common medium of communication within the E.E.C.

The Minister of Education (Times Educational Supplement, February 23rd, 1962) stated that 'he welcomed the experiments being made in primary schools and was encouraging developments of this kind where suitable teachers were available'.

The spread of these new ideas on foreign language teaching was largely made possible through the interest that the Nuffield Foundation showed in them. Their contribution "dates from 1962 when the Foundation began to support a number of projects for the furtherance of Modern Language teaching, and in particular to encourage the development of oral teaching languages to young children as a vehicle of communication" (Spicer, in Schools Council, 1966: 37). In this connection, the first three stages of the Nuffield Primary French course 'En Avant' was designed for use in primary schools with large classes and non-specialist teachers.[1]

The interest of the Foundation in PF French also materialised in two language experiments in Leeds.

The first one (1961) was carried out in Leeds where

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[1] Stage 1A and 1B were published in 1966, Stage 2 in 1967 and Stage 3 in 1968.

a bilingual teacher taught French to a small group of selected children.

In March 1962, five primary schools in the City of Leeds carried out the second experiment under more normal class conditions with unselected children and teachers who were not bilingual (Stern, 1967). By 1962, a number of similar teaching experiments had also taken place up and down the country. Lancashire, Warwickshire, Surrey, West Sussex and Scotland are reported as having carried out such experiments.

Following the experiments in Leeds, the Nuffield Foundation began "discussions with the Ministry's Curriculum Study Group about the establishment of a pilot project" for FF teaching (Schools Council, 1966: 1).

The French Pilot Scheme

In March 1963, the Minister of Education announced in Parliament the launching of a pilot scheme for the teaching of French in Primary Schools. The Nuffield Foundation sponsored the scheme jointly with the Ministry which undertook responsibility for the organisation of the scheme and the training of the teachers. This pilot scheme was to be the first large-scale attempt in Britain to teach a modern language to pupils of all abilities.

In March 1963, 146 Local Education Authorities (L.E.A.'s) were asked by the Ministry to say whether they would like to participate in the pilot scheme. In July 1963 thirteen pilot areas thought to be representative of the educational conditions throughout the country were chosen to take part

in the scheme out of the 80 L.E.A.'s that had answered the Ministry's request positively. These 13 called "pilot areas" involved 125 schools and approximately 6,000 children (Schools Council, 1966: 9). 53 L.E.A.'s that, for various reasons, had not been selected as pilot areas, were associated with the scheme, the principles of which they were to adhere to closely. In 1964, the Department of Education and Science made training facilities and financial help available to all areas concerned. We shall consider this in detail in a subsequent section (I: 2.6.3). The pilot scheme was actually started in September, 1964. Its aim was to ascertain the feasibility of introducing a modern language into the primary school curriculum (ibid.: 3).

Other PF schemes

It should be emphasized that the pilot scheme was not the only experiment taking place at that time. In 1964, a considerable number of local authorities had already set up their own French teaching schemes or were planning to do so (ibid.: 75). These local schemes were implemented and developed parallel to the official scheme. They are all the more important in our study as they comprise all the schemes started in Scotland including the Edinburgh French programme.

First national assessment of PF teaching

Shortly after the introduction of the pilot scheme, i.e. in October 1964, the then newly established Schools Council tried to assess the extent of primary French in

the country as a whole.

The results of this inquiry (Schools Council, 1966: 13) indicate that four types of areas were providing French in primary schools: the pilot areas, the associated areas, the areas with a local scheme, and the areas with uncoordinated teaching. Unfortunately the information collected was incomplete and it is difficult to obtain a clear picture of the situation in each area. The figures given in the report (ibid.) are summarized in Table 1. They indicate that a considerable number of L.E.A.'s had set up schemes of their own at the same time or even before the pilot scheme was launched.

Table 1 The national situation of PF teaching in 1965

		No. of teachers		No. of schools	No. of pupils
No. of areas which replied to the inquiry	134			14,000	
No. of areas providing French	119	5,000		2,940 (21%)	unavailable
1. No. of pilot areas	13	(645)	1600	125	6,000
2. No. of associated areas	53	unavailable			26,000
3. No. of local schemes		unavailable		2,815	
4. No. of uncoordinated teaching	53	3,300			unavailable

More recent information on the development of Primary French teaching was obtained in December 1969 (Schools Council, private communication). At that date, the number of pilot areas had remained unchanged while the number of

associated areas had risen to 72. It was also reported that "there was no reliable information about the number of schools and children being taught French in the associated areas but "it was estimated as a rough guide that there were about 640 primary and 450 secondary schools participating in these".[1] The same information goes on to say that "outside the pilot scheme there is a growing number of so-called 'free-lance' areas where French is being taught from the ages of 7, 8 and 9". The same source indicated that although no definite information was available about the scale of Primary French in the country as a whole, it was understood that, as a rough estimate, about 25% of all children in the age-range 8-10 were probably taking French at that time (i.e. December 1969). A more recent assessment of the present extent of PF teaching in the country does not seem to be available. However, some indication was obtained in July 1971 at a conference held at York[2] when 41 out of 50 L.E.A.'s reported that French was being taught to a lesser or greater extent in the primary schools of their areas (Rowlands, 1972).

2.2 Staffing

The introduction of foreign-language teaching on a large scale in primary schools necessarily poses a problem

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[1] It is not known on what the given figures are based.

[2] This conference was organised for members of the Nuffield/ Schools Council Modern Languages Project and representatives from L.E.A.'s.

of staffing since a foreign language does not normally belong to the initial training of primary teachers.

There is no single mode of staffing used exclusively throughout the country but there is evidence to show that the most common method is to use the classroom teachers.

As regards the pilot scheme, the organisers considered that "there would be many advantages if the French teacher was also the class teacher" (Schools Council, 1966: 5) but, at the same time, it was recognised that all classroom teachers would not be able to teach French. Two other types of staff were then thought of to carry out the instruction. The first category was to be composed of classroom teachers sufficiently qualified in French to become semi-specialists within their own schools by taking one or two classes other than their own. The second category was to be composed of peripatetic teachers who would be used mainly in small schools. The figures available (NFER, 1968: 8) as regards the detailed categories of teachers involved in the pilot scheme are as follows (the figures are based on the situation in July 1966):

No. of schools included in the survey:	121	
No. of teachers involved in the scheme in those schools:	643	
No. of classroom teachers:	360	526 (82%)
No. of semi-specialist classroom teachers:	166	
No. of peripatetic teachers, French specialists on the staff or others [1]	35	107
	16	
	56	

[1] 'Other teachers' refer to that category of class teachers only in a control school. The report unfortunately does not define what this means.

These figures clearly indicate that the majority of the French teachers involved in the pilot scheme are also the classroom teachers. This corresponds to the principles clearly stated by Mulcahy (ibid.: 22) according to whom "in cases where teachers with both qualifications (i.e. that of qualified linguist and that of primary school teacher) were not available, the preference was for the established primary school teacher". The author added that "it would have been misleading to base the pilot scheme experiment on a minority group". It is also interesting to note that many class teachers who had been trained to teach French during the scheme became "semi-specialists" after a year or two of experience in French teaching (NFER, 1968: 8).

The number of classroom teachers involved in the teaching of French in the associated areas, L.E.A. schemes or individual schools is not known. However, it can be assumed that an even greater percentage of classroom teachers is likely to be involved. In Scotland, if one excepts a few peripatetic teachers in Aberdeen, the classroom teacher is the only mode of staffing.

2.3 Qualifications

In a mode of staffing relying mainly on non-specialist teachers the question of their qualifications is necessarily raised.

2.3.1 Within the Pilot Scheme

The organisers of the pilot scheme, far from under-

estimating the teacher's role as American administrators had done, recognised the vital nature of the role the teachers would have to play. They also stressed the fact that "audio-visual aids are only aids to teaching" and that consequently "the teacher should not be allowed to feel that these aids will assume the teacher's responsibilities" (Schools Council, 1966: 23). In order to assume these responsibilities fully it was stated that "the teachers teaching French in the primary school must themselves be fluent" (ibid.: 19). The term "fluency" was not otherwise defined but was evidently considered in terms of academic qualifications in French. The organisers "thought reasonable to suppose from the outset that, given additional training both in French and in up-to-date methods, the average primary school teacher, whose qualifications in French might be limited to a pass at 'O' level acquired perhaps some years ago, and whose fluency in the language was likely, to start with, to be limited, would be able to teach the early stages well" (ibid.: 3).

It is in the Interim Report on the NFER evaluation of the pilot scheme (NFER, 1968) that we find a fairly precise account of the actual situation relative to teachers' qualifications within the scheme in 1964 and 1965. The report establishes 9 categories of qualifications (Table 2).[1] These categories include three different qualificatory aspects, i.e. academic qualifications, attendance at a training course and periods of residence

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[1] Academic qualifications are underlined. The figures are based on table 1.7 (p.6) of the NFER report.

in France.

Table 2 Qualifications held by PF teachers within the Pilot Scheme

N = 643

Category 1	Native French speaker	3.4%	22
" 2	Honours degree in French	3.7%	24
" 3	General degree including French	2.3%	15
" 4	French studied at training college 1	8%	52
" 5	French studied to GCE "A" level	15.7%	101
" 6	French studied to GCE "O" level	30.1%	194
" 7	Further education courses in French	20.0%	132
" 8	Certificate/diploma from a French teaching Institute	14.0%	93
" 9	Period of residence in France (3 months or more)	37%	240

Since according to the report a teacher may fall into more than one category, this renders the interpretation of these figures very approximate and a statistical comparison with the Scottish results extremely difficult. In spite of the incompleteness of the data, it is obvious that the majority of the in-service staff have an "O" level qualification and an important number have an "A" level qualification. Information on the teacher's age, although given in the report, is unfortunately not related to the teachers' qualifications. This omission is only natural within the scope of the report. However, such data might have given a clearer idea of the real meaning of these academic qualifications since it is likely that an "O" level qualification acquired many years ago does not represent

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1 In 1964, 506 student entrants took French as a main study course for primary teaching in 43 colleges and departments of education in England and Wales. In 1970, the number of students was only 557 although 64 colleges were then offering French. (Department of Education and Science. Personal communication.)

the same level of ability as one acquired recently.

2.3.2 Outside the Pilot Scheme

As regards the L.E.A. French schemes or those started on a 'free-lance' basis, we do not know of any declaration of intent on the administrators' part relative to their teachers' qualifications and it can only be assumed that the great variety of circumstances probably includes very different views on the question. We possess quantitative information on the qualifications actually held by teachers in England & Wales (Schools Council, 1966) as well as those held in Scotland (S.E.D., 1969).

The Schools Council survey concerning England and Wales dates back to 1964 (ibid.:13) and concerns 5,000 teachers in 119 areas. More than 50% of these teachers had only an "O" level qualification in French, and about one-quarter an "A" level qualification. Nearly a quarter had resided in France for more than one month continuously and well over a half appeared either to have attended a local language refresher course or to be attending one.

From the quantitative information given about Scotland in the S.E.D. report (1969), the percentages in each category seem to be very different from those in England.

In the following table (ibid.: 7) we have used the categories of the Interim Report for easier comparison; however, these categories have been adapted to suit the Scottish system of qualifications.

Table 3 Qualifications held by PF teachers in Scotland compared with those of the Pilot Scheme teachers

		Scottish Teachers N = 307	Percent.	Percent. within the Pilot Scheme	Schools Council approx. percent.
Category 1	Native speaker	1	0.3%	3.4%	
" 2	Honours degree in French	5	1.60%	3.7%	
" 3	French in ordinary degree	73	23%	2.3%	
" 4	College of Education course	13	4.4%	8%	
" 5	Higher French	146	67%	15.7%	25%
" 6	Less than Higher French	69	22%	30%	50%

The teachers' training qualifications were reported to be as follows:

Teaching qualification (secondary education)	12	-	-
College of Education In-service Course	67	21%	-
Education Authority In-service Course	37	12%	-
Course in France	18	5%	-

The S.E.D. report adds that "a significant majority professed no knowledge of French at all". It is not specified here if the term "significant" is used in the statistical sense and it is unfortunately impossible to check this assertion since in the report the number of teachers with an "O" level qualification has been surprisingly linked with those with "no knowledge of French". It is also indicated that "few teachers had spent any significant period of time in a French speaking country. Of the 307 teachers visited, only

50 had spent more than one month abroad" (ibid.: 7).

2.4 Teacher-Effectiveness

2.4.1 Criteria

While the use of the regular classroom teacher avoids time-tabling problems and facilitates integration of the foreign language into the primary curriculum, it raises the most serious problem of teacher-effectiveness. Teacher-effectiveness could be defined for the purpose of our study as the quality of language teaching provided by the teachers concerned as distinct from their qualifications.

Morrisson et al., (1969: 21) have drawn our attention to the dual difficulty of establishing criteria of teacher effectiveness and planning "an investigation in which the pupils of all the teachers concerned are comparable" ... when the achievements of their pupils has been accepted as being the ultimate criteria of their effectiveness. This difficulty may partly explain the lack of information on the question which seems to be the object of only two reports and a few subjective appreciations.

2.4.2 The NFER Report

The first report of its kind is once again the NFER Interim Report on the evaluation of the pilot scheme, (1968). This report provides information on teacher-effectiveness although this was not the main purpose of the report. Teacher-effectiveness is dealt with in terms of a series of relationships between the teachers' command of French and their pupils' performance.

The data was obtained by members of H.M. Inspectorate

who visited each of the French classes taking part in the experiment. Detailed reports on the teachers and their classes were written in questionnaire form after each visit. In the report, the H.M.I. Evaluation is given in the form of tables, the conclusions of which are as follows:

(i) Firstly, teachers of highly fluent classes tended themselves to be rated 'very fluent' or 'fluent' in their command of French, ($p = < 0.001$), with 'very good' or 'good' pronunciation ($p = < 0.05$) and intonation ($p = < 0.01$). (See p. 200, table 5.1 of the report.)

(ii) Teachers of highly fluent classes tended to be more competent in their handling of audio-visual materials and equipment, ($p = < 0.01$). (See p. 201, table 5.1).

(iii) More classes showing high responsiveness to the French lesson had 'very fluent' or 'fluent' teachers, ($p = < 0.01$). (See p. 202, table 5.2).

(iv) More classes where English was not used in the French lesson had 'very fluent' or 'fluent' teachers, ($p = < 0.05$). (See p. 204, table 5.3).

(v) More classes whose fluency had increased on H.M.I.'s subsequent visits also had teachers whose command of French had shown 'marked' or 'some' improvement, ($p = < 0.001$). (See p. 206, table 5.4).

The report also indicates that successful French teaching could not be attributed to one single factor but that the teacher's skill in the use of primary teaching methods "was felt to outweigh even linguistic competence". The teacher's skill in maintaining the pupils' enthusiasm for French was

also an important factor in the pupils' achievement. Confidence and enthusiasm of the French teacher was also thought to contribute to the high level of achievement of their pupils (ibid.: 82). On the other hand, inadequate teaching was rarely felt to result solely or primarily from the teacher's poor command of French (ibid.: 83).

2.4.3 The S.E.D. Report

The S.E.D. report published in 1969 (see I: 3.4.1) gives an assessment of results in Scotland. These results are based on:-

(i) the ability of the pupils to understand the spoken language. The report states that many pupils could understand the spoken language reasonably well and this was thought to have been brought about by the opportunities offered by mechanical aids.

(ii) the pupils' ability to speak within their range of vocabulary and structures. This was considered in terms of the degree of fluency attained by pupils in speaking the language which was rated for many pupils as creditable on a narrow front. However, the results achieved in vocabulary and knowledge of structures were rated as poor in the majority of classes. The report stated that "in many cases, the pupils' knowledge after two or even three years of French, had not progressed beyond the content of the first few lessons of the course" (ibid.: 16).

(iii) the pupils' ability to use the language in new situations. This aspect of teaching was considered to be particularly disappointing and pupils were found to be

unable to transfer vocabulary and expressions from one context to another one which varied even slightly from the first. The cause of this inability was directly related to the quality of teaching because "the linguistic competence of the majority of the teachers was inadequate" (ibid. p. 16).

We have seen (I: 1.2.6) that, in the States, some research had been carried out to study the effectiveness of classroom teachers as compared to that of language specialists in primary schools. No such experiment is known to have been carried out in Britain.

2.4.4 Other references

Apart from these attempts at quantifying the components of teacher-effectiveness, there exist occasional references of a more qualitative character. Although some authors comment positively on the kind of PF teaching that they have observed, there also exists a strong feeling of anxiety about the quality of some teaching in non-pilot areas. Doubts as to the effectiveness of some teaching have been expressed among Language Advisers, e.g. Rowlands (1970) who wondered "whether it was not true that the majority of teachers were making a pretty bad job of it;" H.M. Inspectors, like Williams (1966) who noted "the slight achievement in French of a substantial percentage of teachers" and the Scottish Education Department (1969) whose report we shall see in detail in a subsequent chapter (I: 4.1).

2.4.5 Effectiveness and qualifications

Because teacher-competence in PF teaching has commonly

been regarded as necessarily related to academic qualifications in the language, there is a case for mentioning here what appears to be the two main streams of opinions on the question.

On the one hand, it has been suggested that graduate qualifications in French are highly desirable and even necessary for PF teaching. This opinion seems to have been held, explicitly or not, by members of Higher Education bodies, e.g. Williams, (ibid.), the Scottish Education Department (ibid.).

On the other hand, such authorities as the organisers of the Pilot Scheme and the producers of the Nuffield primary course for use by non-specialists have in principle agreed with Strevens who states (1965: 28) that "excellent teaching can be done without the need for the teacher to have taken a university degree in the language and literature concerned".

This view has been partly supported by the findings of the NFER evaluation which suggest in the Interim Report (1968: 35)[1] that "the teacher's specific training for PF teaching may well outweigh the teacher's original training and qualifications as a factor determining level of achievement in the classroom". If this is so, the report claims that an in-service programme could provide effective PF teachers who have no qualifications in French.

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[1] Unfortunately, there is no indication in the 1970 NFER report that research into these original findings has been pursued further.

2.5 Teachers' attitude

We have suggested earlier (I: 1.4.4) that the teachers' attitude towards FL teaching in primary schools, when they are involved personally, may be a factor of some relevance in our study. Some aspects of this factor are evoked in the literature.

In the first place, enthusiasm is repeatedly mentioned as being at the origin of many a French programme in Britain, mainly among the "free-lance schools".

Secondly, the teachers' attitude towards the teaching of French to the less able child is dealt with in the NFER Interim Report (1968). Although this restricted aspect is not of direct relevance to our study, it is mentioned here because it was thought in the report that enough evidence had been collected on the relationship between teacher-attitude and pupils' level of achievement in French to warrant further investigation (ibid.: 32).

However, the development of this investigation in the 1970 report is disappointing. Positive relationship between the teachers' enthusiasm for French and the fluency of the class is, indeed, mentioned in the HMI evaluation of the Pilot Scheme,[1] but the results are weakened because teacher enthusiasm is not operationally defined nor is the manner in which it was assessed specified. Furthermore, the attitude of the primary teacher as concerns his new teaching commitments is the only one which is not

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[1] Teachers' enthusiasm was reported to be related to the improved fluency of the classes on the inspectors' second visits ($p < 0.001$). (See Table 5.4 p.205). It was also related to the increased enthusiasm of the class for French ($p < 0.001$).

investigated in the rest of the report. The reasons for this striking omission are not known but in contrast attitudinal questionnaires have been given to primary and secondary school pupils and to secondary school teachers while primary and secondary headmasters have been interviewed about the attitude of the staff not actually involved in PF teaching.

The Scottish Education Department has also raised the question of teacher attitude to PF teaching as a factor of pupils' performance in its 1969 report. It is stated (ibid.: 8) in that report that "a distinct difference was observed between the attitudes of teachers who had elected to do French with their classes and of those who had had the work imposed upon them." The report goes on to say that "inevitably such differences in attitude were reflected in the performance of the pupils". The report explains that "in the early days of primary school French only enthusiastic teachers who had volunteered to do the work were involved" but - "the rapid expansion of French has now led to a situation where such teachers are in the minority and it is not surprising, therefore, that there is even hostility to the teaching of French on the part of some teachers ...". It is reported that out of 307 teachers interviewed 58 appeared to be either "indifferent or hostile towards the teaching of French in their class".

However, as in the NFER report, such an important observation was not precisely defined or investigated. Nevertheless, impressionistic as these observations may be,

they certainly raise a serious problem in large scale programmes involving classroom teachers.

2.6 Teacher-Training

2.6.1 Importance

Teacher-training is obviously of vital importance in a programme using non-specialist teachers. This was officially recognised when the Pilot Scheme was being planned. In July 1962, the Nuffield Foundation identified "the development of new forms of teacher-training courses (as one of the) four components for an integrated project" (Schools Council, 1966: 1) and the Ministry undertook the responsibility "for organising and financing the in-service training of the teachers" (ibid.: 2).

In-service training was seen as the only practical method of meeting the immediate and large demand for PF teachers. It is difficult to specify how long this form of training was intended to remain the main source of teacher-supply. It was recognised, on the other hand, (Riddy, Schools Council, 1966: 32) that the long term solution for the adoption of French as a normal subject of the primary school curriculum lay in the colleges of education, while, on the other, it was stated that "it would be imprudent to take a firm decision to stimulate the expansion of French in the colleges of education before evidence is available about the outcome of the pilot scheme".

It is our argument that whether French is introduced in the initial training of primary teachers or not, in-service training seems likely to remain an important source

of teacher-supply for some years to come. This assumption is based on the suggestion (Riddy, in Education and Culture, 1969: 13) that "if it should be decided that the results of the pilot scheme justify the general introduction of a modern language into the curriculum of primary schools" ... "it would be necessary to train primary school teachers in French at the rate of 12,000 a year ... over a period of ten years". Bearing in mind that the average length of service for 2-year non-graduate teachers ranges from 1.8 to 3.9 years (Times Educational Supplement, April 5th, 1963), it is unlikely that training colleges could become the only source of PF teachers, in the foreseeable future.

2.6.2 Organisation

Training was organised in three stages within the Pilot Scheme (Schools Council, 1966: 9).

(i) the first stage consisted of local courses provided by the L.E.A.'s concerned and organised on a part-time basis. These courses varied considerably in duration from three months (2 hours a week) to 7 or 8 months; one L.E.A. provided a 90-hour course.

(ii) the second stage consisted of intensive language courses organised in France. These courses lasted for one term and were held at the British Institute in Paris and at the University of Besançon. A similar course was subsequently held in London at the Holborn College of Law, Languages and Commerce.

(iii) the final stage consisted of a seven to ten days' course in method and took place after the course in France.

2.6.3 Number of trainees within the scheme

It was reported (ibid.) that a total of 360 primary teachers attended the intensive courses between January 1964 and July 1965 and it can be inferred from the further details given in the report that up to January 1st, 1966, 460 teachers had attended the courses, 195 from pilot areas and 265 from associate areas. These numbers show the important effort accomplished by the Ministry in the matter of training, whether before or at the beginning of the scheme.

In connection with the question of number of teachers trained, H.M.I. Mulcahy (ibid.: 35) reveals that "though sufficient teachers were trained to cover the three year requirements of the scheme plus 10% wastage" they found that, in fact, there were insufficient to meet the requirements of even the second year. This, she said, was not due to miscalculation but to the loss of teachers from pilot areas to other L.E.A.'s who "wanting to start or expand the teaching of French offered headships to teachers trained under the scheme". The same H.M.I. wisely recommended that a programme should not be started until a sufficient number of suitable teachers and a reserve group of about 10% had been trained. However, in spite of this recommendation the figures obtainable in the report seem to show a discrepancy between the numbers of teachers who accomplished the full training process and those who actually started teaching French. This is shown in the following table:

	No. of in-service teachers	No. of teachers fully trained up to 1.1.66
Pilot areas	645 approx.	195
Associated areas	unknown but 26,000 children	265
Total	(less than 1600)	460

The question of sufficiency of trained teachers was also considered as essential in the report of the Committee on Research and Development in Modern Languages (1968) where it was admitted that "if all questions could be answered satisfactorily there would still remain the big problem of ensuring an adequate supply of teachers qualified in the language taught". The report added that the solution would "probably have to be found in a national plan of training extending over a number of years", (p.3).

2.6.4 Areas outside the pilot scheme

As recently as January 1970, there was no information about the training of teachers outside the Pilot Scheme apart from the fact that "a number of authorities in the 'free-lance' areas have sought to become associate with the pilot scheme mainly in order that their primary teachers could become eligible to participate in the in-service programme devised for teachers in the pilot scheme". (Schools Council, Personal Communication, 1970). From September 1970, the Department of Education and Science opened the intensive course to all L.E.A.'s as part of its in-service programme.

2.6.5 Content of courses

In spite of the numerous teacher-training courses that have been run during the last decade and are still being run in Britain, the literature on the subject reveals little or no information about the content, form or assessment of these courses. As far as is known, at the time of writing, the specific requirements for such courses have not been defined in linguistic terms. No description of the language relevant to Primary French appears to have been made. Consequently, individual teacher-trainers have had to rely on ad hoc methods whose only justification is often no more than tradition or sheer improvisation. The difficult situation in which most teacher-trainers find themselves is summarized by Rossi (1970) who complains that there is no language course on the market suitable for primary teachers. The author states that although now in their third year of teacher-training they still have not solved the question of the best textbook to use. In their case they use the children's textbook, "En Avant". They also ask a foreign assistant to help with the conversation and "for the rest, practically anything goes". The author specifies that the teacher-trainers in his area have tried "Voix et Images" plus CREDIF drills,[1] which are said to be reasonably successful if mixed with something else. Various BBC courses have also been tried and some found wanting. Textbooks published in France for non-specialist adult learners such as Mauger and other Hachette publications have been sampled with reservations. The only

[1] This general language course was published in 1958 by the Centre de Recherches et d'Etudes pour la Diffusion du Français.

two things that have so far been accepted with consistent approval are the O.U.P. "Let's Read French" series and a set of drills published by Mary Glasgow "Talk French", but neither of these is a course." The author ends his plea sarcastically by asking suggestions for the best menu to serve the teachers.

We shall distinguish three types of approach to in-service training:[1]

i) the academic approach,

ii) the oversimplified approach,

iii) the general language course approach.

i) The academic approach

This type certainly used to characterize most of the courses run in France for British teachers at the beginning of PF training. Run by language specialists, usually secondary school teachers, who knew no other alternative, such courses were thought of as a simplified version of courses for secondary school teachers only with an emphasis on the oral skills. These courses often included formal lectures on literature or civilisation, the typical French exercise of "explication de textes", traditional grammar classes as well as no less traditional conversation classes.

The content of a three-day intensive residential course that was held for 15 primary teachers in February 1964, i.e. before the pilot scheme was launched, illustrates this type of approach. The staging of the course was as follows:

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[1] Most of our information about teacher-training originates from personal investigation.

- 3 hours were given to pronunciation exercises in the classroom using the text-books "A French course for adult beginners" or "A Propos".
- 5 hours were devoted to lectures and talks on such unrelated topics as: aspects de la vie française; Vue de l'éducation en France; Paris; La Provence; La Cote d'azur; La révolution Française; La géographie de la France; L'étiquette Française.
- 5 hours were devoted to conversations on a given topic or discussions on the lectures and talks.
- 6 hours were devoted to films followed by a discussion.
- 2 hours were devoted to role-playing.
- 3 hours were occupied by coffee and tea breaks.

The course, which for many years took place in Vichy at Easter, was also representative of the academic type. It seems clear that such courses bear little relevance to the needs of primary teachers either with regard to their language content or to their approach to language teaching.

Although the British organisers of teacher-training helped the French organisers to view the teachers' needs in a more realistic way as is explained in the Working Paper no. 8[1] "there were inevitably difficulties in getting the authorities in France to understand what was needed for the purposes of primary school teachers - getting away from the academic approach of the normal courses - but this was put right in time ....."(p. 10). The steady evolution of language-teaching concepts made this type of language-teaching

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[1] The Working Paper no. 8 'French in the Primary School' was published by the Schools Council in 1966.

unacceptable by trainers and trainees alike.

ii) The oversimplified approach

This approach stands at the other extreme of the type of courses we have just considered. It is essentially represented in L.E.A. courses where teacher-trainers are over-anxious to meet the teachers' needs. This approach consists in "using the primary course which the majority of the teachers are either using or about to use in their own schools" (Schools Council, 1966: 9). This has been the case in many areas of England and Scotland.

For instance, it is known that in 1967 the Nuffield French course was used for training teachers in Aberdeen. Before 1967, Edinburgh teachers were trained with the French-produced primary course "Bonjour Line" which was then used throughout the Corporation Schools. The belief that a non-specialist teacher of French required a very simplified kind of language - without specifying what this language is - reached its peak in Glasgow where teachers trained at the French Institute were, at one time, taught with "Bonjour Line", whereas the City schools used the American T.V. course "Parlons Francais". The teachers trained by Glasgow Corporation in 1970 used a second or third year secondary school textbook.

iii) The general language course approach

By this we mean the use of any language course designed for non-specific adult students, e.g. the French-produced course "Voix et Images de France" which a number of training centers are using in England. In order to meet the

learners' multitude of purposes for learning the language, the aims of such courses are usually diffuse. They are intended to prepare the learners to carry on the study of the language at a higher level or to deal with a variety of loosely defined daily-life situations. They are based on the designer's belief and intuition of what is to be taught. The course designed in Besançon and used for the training of English primary teachers seems to belong to that category. In view of the important place that the one-term Besançon course holds in the English system of training for teachers in and outside the Pilot Scheme, we shall consider its aims and content in detail.

The Besançon Course

This course is called "Cours de perfectionnement". It was devised by the Centre de Linguistique Appliquée de Besançon with a dual purpose in mind. First of all, it was meant to give foreign students - many of them from under-developed countries - an ability in French sufficient to enable them to perform satisfactorily in French universities and technical colleges. At the same time, and this is what should be stressed, it was meant for training British primary teachers of French. The content, method and technique of the course are the same in both cases. The only difference between the two groups of learners lies in the additional activities given to the teachers (visits to schools, talks and special texts on French education, etc.) and the greater amount of time spent in the language laboratory.

The grammatical content of the 10-week course covers

all the essentials of French grammar. Each lesson is centred round a topic. There follows the grammatical index of the course together with the topics each lesson develops:

	Grammatical points	Topics
section 1 (2 semaines)		
1	Present	le bureau
2	Infinitif	le restaurant
3	Imperatif	le bricolage
4	Etude des pronoms	les magasins
5	Relations de temps	l'invitation
6	Relations logiques: cause et conséquence	l'essayage
7	Constructions directes et indirectes	l'avenir, les études
section 2 (2 semaines)		
1	Futur	Limoges, Paris
2	Expression du futur	Télécommunications
3	Comparaison	Vacances, voyages
4	Introduction au style indirect	L'avenir des femmes
	" au gérondif	
5	Introduction aux temps composés	les chantiers
	" aux questions	
section 3 (2 semaines)		
1	Le passé	l'exode rural
2	opposition passé composé/ imparfait	le congrès
3	les temps du passé	l'automobile
4	les formes du participe présent	l'appartement

Grammatical points	Topics
5 expression du passé Relations de temps	les informations

section 4 (2 semaines)

1 le subjonctif (forme et emploi)	le budget familial
2 expression de la pensée	le festival
3 expressions logiques: but, concession	les élections, le sport; S.M.I.G. et syndicats

section 5 (2 semaines)

1 Conditionnel (forme et emploi)	la médecine
2 Discours indirect (toutes les formes)	Commerce et publicité
3 Participe présent et tournures infinitives	la justice
4 Le passé simple	les sciences électronique
5 Passé simple et passé composé	Albert Camus; livres

Conversation classes on given topics also form an important aspect of the course. These are some of these topics:

- Que pensez-vous de la chirurgie esthétique?
- Les traits du visage révèlent-ils le caractère?
- Les bruits de la grande ville moderne menacent-ils notre équilibre nerveux?
- Est-il juste de donner aux vedettes de cinéma des salaires fabuleux?
- Que pensez-vous des sondages d'opinion?

A text in the form of a dialogue is the starting point of each lesson and includes all the relevant lexical and grammatical items to be taught. There follow some of the new lexical items to be studied in one of the additional texts devised specially for primary teachers:

- Cours préparatoire; cours élémentaire; classe de perfectionnement; scolarité obligatoire; enfant retardé; certificat d'études; 4° pratique; l'éducation nationale; un inspecteur primaire; école de quartier; un batiment préfabriqué; la rentrée des classes; la cour de récréation.
- une rentrée mouvementée; le nombre des élèves augmentent; demander l'autorisation; dédoubler une classe; obtenir satisfaction; installer des classes; prendre des dispositions .... il faudra de nouveaux locaux; un enseignement adapté a l'age des enfants; résoudre un problème; rencontrer des difficultés; doubler les effectifs; laisser la place aux jeunes; demander son changement; occuper une classe; consulter des livres; entendre dire quelquechose ...

Daily sessions in the language laboratory also characterize the course version for teachers. Language laboratory practice is exclusively composed of structural drills. These structural drills are mainly based on transformations, fully or semi-contextualized drills do not occur. Here are some examples of drills:

- (section 1) stimulus: Allez-vous en
  response: Allez-vous en tout de suite

- (section 2) stimulus: Tu gagnes beaucoup d'argent, tu le dépenseras?
  response: je ne dépenserai pas tout l'argent que je gagne
- (section 3) stimulus: Avant, vous payiez un loyer élevé?
  response: non, le loyer que nous payions n'était pas élevé
- (section 4) stimulus: le festival a lieu en Aôut, c'est normal
  response: il est normal que le festival ait lieu en Aôut.

This course meets a number of objectives that are thought to be of relevance to PF teaching. The intensity of the course, added to the fact that the teachers live with French families, certainly help them to use French as a meaningful way of communication and with more confidence. The course is also devised to raise or keep up the teachers' interest in the language and enlarge their knowledge of France and the French. However, we express reservation as to the relevance of its language content:

(i) in terms of grammar, the content of the course goes far beyond the area of language specific to PF teaching (e.g. reported speech, subjunctive, passé simple) while at the same time it deals too rapidly or not at all with areas essential for teaching (e.g. imperative, question forms, etc.)

(ii) in terms of lexis, the content of the course is largely inappropriate as a result of the topics chosen for

the lessons or for the discussions (e.g. télécommunications, l'exode rural, l'avenir, la médecine, etc.). The lexical items included in the version of the course designed for primary teachers seem to have been selected to allow the teachers to discuss about school problems with their French colleagues. Few of these items will enable the teachers to talk to their own British primary pupils, (e.g. inspecteur primaire, l'education nationale, enfant retardé, doubler les effectifs, demander son changement, etc.).

(iii) in terms of method, nothing seems to be built into the course to inspire the teachers in their own teaching.

2.6.6 Selection

First of all, the problem of selection of teachers for training and for carrying out the foreign language instruction in the areas outside the pilot scheme can be disregarded as there is no evidence that it was ever even attempted.

The situation is different within the pilot areas where the need for such selection was felt soon after the scheme was implemented. Mulcahy (Schools Council, 1966: 22) reports that "on one of the courses at Besançon, visits to schools had to be postponed because a third of the teachers had not reached the requisite standard of comprehension". Subsequently, all the teachers were "required to take a B.E.L.C.[1] test before attending an intensive course" (Berra, 1969). There is no information on the criteria used to select the teachers on the basis of this test or about the decisions concerning those

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[1] Bureau pour l'Enseignement de la langue et de la Civilisation Française à l'Etranger.

teachers who failed the test. It is not known whether those teachers were invited to undergo further training in Britain or requested to stop teaching altogether if they had already started. The information available leads us to believe that the teachers who, for whatever reason, were not among those sent to the one-term course in France, were not tested.

We shall now examine the nature of the BELC test and the use to which it was put. The test was specially designed for the British primary teachers. The second version, form B, seems to have been the more widely used; it consists of 4 parts:

- part 1 is a sub-test of phonemic discrimination in isolated words
- part 2 is a sub-test of phonemic discrimination in sentences
- part 3 is a sub-test of oral comprehension in isolated sentences
- part 4 is either a sub-test of oral comprehension of a text or a sub-test of grammatical proficiency.

In a report about the test, Companys & François, the authors, stated that one of their aims was to study the predictive value of the test as concerns the teachers' ability to attend an intensive course in France. However, François admitted (Aix-en-Provence conference, 1969) that no validity study had been carried out as yet. The authors' report on the test (ibid.) simply concludes that

"l'épreuve de grammaire semble bien correspondre au niveau moyen des candidats. En revanche, l'épreuve de reconnaissance de phonèmes semble un peu facile et l'épreuve de comprehension orale un peu difficile".

In the absence of any other information, the effectiveness of this test as an instrument of selection has been investigated with Besançon teacher-trainers who put at 10 to 15% the number of teachers unable to attend the course successfully. However, in view of the fact that the terminal behaviour of the Besançon course has not been explicitly defined and that the teachers are not tested at the end of the ten-week period of training, it is difficult to specify what the teacher-trainers exactly meant by successful attendance.

2.7 Discussion of the situation in Britain

2.7.1 General appraisal

The picture that first emerges from a general appraisal of the situation of French teaching in Britain as reviewed in the preceding section is far from clear. This is partly due to the fact that two separate movements have developed concurrently: outside the Pilot Scheme which, as we have seen, was experimentally launched with government support, French schemes have grown and multiplied independantly in scores of Primary Schools about which very little is known (even the situation in associate areas seems far from being under control).

The differences between the Pilot Scheme and the others are deep and numerous as concerns organisation, methods and

means of achieving them. Nevertheless, these differences should not conceal the fact that both types of scheme share similar characteristics; the basic one being that they make ample use of in-service teachers and that, therefore, they both have to solve the same problem in that respect, i.e. the teachers' ability in the language taught.

A satisfactory level of language ability has often proved difficult to obtain among all the in-service teachers involved. There is evidence that this is a most serious problem since the preliminary findings of the NFER evaluation, corroborating some American results, have shown that teacher-ability in the language is positively related to pupil-achievement. As a consequence of the linguistic inadequacy of a number of teachers, the value of PF teaching has been queried in some cases. Therefore, the linguistic ability of the PF teachers emerges as one of the central factors in a study of the feasibility of non-specialist PF teaching. We shall discuss this factor under three aspects: definition, measurement and development of teacher-ability.

2.7.2 Definition

What does linguistic ability mean where PF teaching is concerned? The literature on the subject does not provide any clear answer to the question and no attempt to describe the language used for PF teaching purposes seems to have been made. The nearest approach to a definition of teacher-ability is found in the S.E.D. report. There it is specified that 'a minimum standard of linguistic

proficiency would require the teacher to speak French with an acceptable accent and with no serious errors of pronunciation .... and to manipulate simple spoken French correctly ....' (p. 19). However, we believe that rigorous investigation on the subject cannot be based on a description that uses such terms as 'errors', 'acceptability of the accent' or 'simplicity of the language' without, in turn, defining them.

Therefore, we consider that a definition of ability based on a linguistic description of PF teaching requirements is a preliminary condition to a rational approach to the problem of staffing and training.

2.7.3 Measurement

If one accepts the principle that teacher-ability is a relevant factor in PF teaching, then one obviously wants to be able to tell which teachers are proficient enough in the language from those who are not. This means that a valid instrument of measurement must be available for easy and reliable use by those in charge of staffing a PF scheme.

There is no indication in the relevant literature that such an instrument exists or has been used prior to staffing an existing scheme. It appears that the main yardstick for assessing the teachers' ability prior to involving them has been their academic qualifications in French. In many cases, the teachers' self evaluation or own interest in the language have provided the main basis for assessing their suitability. In other cases, there appears to have been no attempt at assessing at all and in-service teachers have

been involved for the only reason that they happened to teach a primary class that required a French teacher. The ability of the teachers who had already started teaching has sometimes been assessed by inspectors or language advisers who have come to observe the PF classes.

It is not known whether those teachers whose proficiency was found to be insufficient were asked to stop teaching or not. If they were, it is probable that they found this humiliating. If they were allowed to go on teaching, then the children are likely to have suffered from poor teaching. In either case, evaluation after involving the teachers appears to be a fruitless procedure.

It is our argument in this study that quality in PF teaching cannot be reached by involving the primary staff on a non-selective basis. Nor can the identification of adequately proficient teachers be based on an *ad hoc* system of evaluation. Some objective instrument of assessment must be designed in order to recruit only those teachers who meet the required standard of proficiency.

2.7.4 Development of teacher-ability

The linguistic ability of the PF teachers can be developed by in-service training. This has been clearly underlined in the literature and training schemes have been actively organised throughout the country. However, it appears from a study of some of these schemes that the importance of some points connected with training has been overlooked.

Numbers

There is a strong suggestion from the figures available in the literature and from our own information that a number of teachers have been involved in PF teaching without prior training. In fact, prior training does not appear to have been laid down as a requisite condition for PF teaching. It is doubtful whether this condition can be fulfilled if the actual number of schools or classes involved is not precisely known as seems to be the case.

Content

We have seen that the linguistic requirements for PF teaching have never been defined. Consequently, the training targets and the method to reach them have been left to the intuition, experience and beliefs of individual training centres. As a result the primary teachers' needs have been alternatively assimilated to the needs of their pupils or to those of non-specific adult learners. Although such ad hoc methods have, in many cases, been satisfactory we believe that they cannot be relied upon to ensure PF training on a wide scale or to guarantee a reasonable standardization of the final results. We view this last condition as a non-negligible consideration in training since all the teachers are expected to carry out similar PF instruction in their classes.

It is our argument that the quality of PF training can only be improved by relevant teacher-training. This implies the thorough investigation of the teachers'

requirements and the design of a specific training course. Both lines of research lie beyond the means of most individual teacher-trainers and should probably become the responsibility of some centrally organised research in the same way as the design of suitable materials for the primary pupils has been.

It should be made clear that relevance in teacher-training is essentially a linguistic matter. The inclusion of a few French nursery rhymes, visits to schools or conversations on educational topics into a PF course is not in itself a guarantee of the relevance of that course if its linguistic aims remain undefined and its language selection left to chance. There is no evidence that existing courses have been planned on the basis of strict language objectives.

Results

Does PF training necessarily lead to ability to teach? An awareness of the problem of under-achievement in language learning, especially among adult learners, normally points to a negative answer to this question. However, since there is no indication in the relevant literature that the teachers' proficiency has ever been assessed after training, it can be assumed that the problem has not received much attention. In fact, there is evidence that course attendance has usually been considered as a kind of licence to teach the language.

We fear that training may not always achieve the expected results for two reasons: (i) some teachers may be

unable or unwilling to develop their ability in the language and (ii) the training course itself may be inadequate in preparing the PF teachers for their new task. The view that training may be ineffective has recently been confirmed by some headmasters' reports on the effects of in-service training (NFER, 1970: 66). They stated that training was disappointing and it was felt that the teachers concerned were still not competent to teach French effectively.

There seems to be a strong case for assessing the final results of the teachers who have attended a course. This would serve a dual purpose: (i) it would help to eliminate those whose achievement does not reach the set standard of proficiency and (ii) it would provide a useful feedback on the value of the course itself.

Assessing the teachers' terminal behaviour obviously infers that a minimum standard of proficiency has been decided upon and that a valid instrument of measurement has been designed.

CHAPTER 3

THE EDINBURGH FRENCH PROGRAMME

3.0 The Situation in Scotland in 1962

The first mention of FLP (foreign language in the primary school) teaching in Scotland appeared in the Times Educational Supplement of January 25, 1963. It stated that during the previous year, French had been introduced in 4 Edinburgh primary schools, 40 Glasgow schools were ready to start it and similar experiments were being undertaken by Aberdeen and other local authorities. The article in the Times did not put forward any specific reasons for what it called 'the Scottish venture' but, since it referred to the Leeds experiment and that of a group of Blackpool primary schools, it can be assumed that the reasons that led to the early introduction of French into Scottish schools were similar to those that gave rise to the whole national FLP movement. This impression was later confirmed in the S.E.D. report (1969: 5) which stated that "the factors which led to this marked departure from the traditional pattern of primary school education were the great upsurge of interest in modern languages in

almost every country in the world, the gradual change of attitude in Britain towards the importance of language learning, and the appearance of new techniques and mechanical aids in the field of modern language teaching".

The article in the Times Educational Supplement (ibid.) is one of the few written documents available at that time expressing the views of the Scottish authorities on their policy of staffing. It states that if French teaching was to be extended to "a large number of primary pupils it would have to be under the care of ordinary teachers". It stressed that no large-scale expansion could be considered if all the teachers concerned had to be French specialists. Although the authorities were fully aware of the difficulties of not using French specialists, they thought it could be done because the linguistic structures to be employed in primary French teaching were "both simple and restricted in number" (ibid.). A large number of teachers was said to have expressed interest in the new development and many had volunteered to attempt the new task. It was hoped that the use of language laboratories and other devices could help to improve the teachers' pronunciation. It is noteworthy that at that time certain weaknesses in the planning had been realised by the organisers who saw enthusiasm rather than well-thought out decisions as the main spring of educational change.

Although there is no record available regarding the development of French in Edinburgh, there is no reason to believe that it departs from the general context described in this article. However, the Edinburgh French programme

is characterised by a series of gradual changes that have been made over the years in an attempt to reach greater efficiency. The development of the French programme can be divided into 4 phases.

3.1 The Experimental Phase

The first introduction of French into the Corporation schools of Edinburgh dates back to 1962 when 4 primary schools started French as an experiment. The language was taught to children of all abilities and since there was general uncertainty in Britain and elsewhere about the most desirable age for starting language learning, children of ages 8 to 12 years, i.e. from Primary IV onwards were included in the experiment. The instruction was carried out by classroom teachers who had been chosen because of their interest and apparent suitability. Academic qualifications in French were taken as a basis for judging whether or not a teacher was suitable.

During this experimental phase, the classes learning French increased in number for two reasons: (i) the schools were encouraged by the local authority and (ii) they emulated each other. In order to understand why the growth of the programme was officially encouraged, one must realise that uniform entry of all pupils into secondary schools was considered essential at that time. It was only much later that mixed intake into secondary schools was considered feasible. What was essentially an organisational problem therefore led the organisers to think that it was better to run the risk of having French taught indifferently than not at all.

As regards the administrative procedure used to generalise the French programme to all schools in Edinburgh it was stated in an interview which the author had with the Modern Languages Advisor, that no central directives to the primary headmasters were given as such. French teaching was discussed at meetings with the headmasters. "The schools were invited to indicate their desire to teach French" and there was no suggestion that French was to be introduced into schools in an authoritarian manner.[1] This procedure may explain why there appears to be little written evidence on the subject of the inception of the large-scale French programme.

Teaching materials and equipment were readily made available by the local authority. A number of published courses were in use during the experimental phase as is indicated in an official survey (1964) of 28 classes in 22 Corporation schools, (see Table 1).

Table 1 Primary Courses used during the Experimental Phase

Name of Course	No. of Classes	Type of Audio-Visual Aids	Designer/ Publisher	Date
Bonjour Line	6	Filmstrips and tapes	CREDIF/ Didier Paris	1963
Tavor	11	Filmstrips and tapes	Tavor aids Inc. E.F.V.A.	1962
BBC	3	Radio	BBC	1963
Bon Voyage	3	Wall posters and records	Mary Glasgow & Baker	1963
En Avant [2] (experimental materials)	5	Figurines & tapes	Nuffield/ Arnold & Sons	1966

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1 This chapter is based on an interview which the author had with Mr. Ronald Hill, the Modern Languages Advisor to the Education Department of Edinburgh Corporation, (June 24th, 1972), and on documentation kindly provided by him.

2 Some Corporation Schools participated in the pre-testing of the Nuffield materials.

3.2 Phase 1 of the Edinburgh Programme

3.2.1 Scope

We have seen in the previous section that in order to ensure continuity within the school and uniform entry of all pupils into secondary schools, it was necessary to introduce the French programme on an 'all or nothing' basis. To all intents and purposes this was achieved by September 1966, when all but a few of the 86 Corporation schools were teaching French. The programme affected the last three grades, *viz.* PV, PVI and PVII, and involved a total of 444 classes only 17 (3.7%) of which were not taught French by their own teachers.

Since practically all the staff of PV, PVI and PVII classes found themselves involved in French teaching, it therefore follows that the teachers' ability and interest in the language could not always be dominant factors in their participation in the French programme. This fact was to be the main hurdle that had to be surmounted in the following years, in spite of the measures that had been taken by the Education Department to lessen the teachers' difficulties by providing (i) new teaching materials and (ii) teacher-training facilities.

3.2.2 Teacher Qualifications

A survey of the staff involved in the teaching of primary French during 1967 revealed that of 444 teachers, (1.1%) were University graduates in French, 71 (16%) were graduates who had taken French as a subsidiary subject and 19 (4.3%) were non-graduates, qualified under Article 39,

i.e. after two years' French at a teacher-training college. The survey also showed that 2 of the teachers had lived in France for one and seven years respectively and 2 others were bilingual. Information on the number of teachers with Higher and Lower level qualifications was not available.

3.2.3 Teaching Materials

During the experimental phase all the schools had been provided with sets of the French-produced course 'Bonjour Line' together with the necessary hardware, projectors, screens and tape-recorders. However, experience showed that this course was unsuitable for teachers who were not very proficient in French. Moreover, it was found that the type of visual aids used in this course (filmstrips) called for certain material requirements such as a specially fitted room, that many schools were unable to provide. It was found, too, that the highly repetitive technique used in the course was not in keeping with the spirit of Primary Education. All this explains why there was a change to the Nuffield Primary French course. 'En Avant', when it became available in 1966. By 1967, only a minority of teachers were still using the 'Bonjour Line' course.

'En Avant' is simpler to use than 'Bonjour Line' in every way since it has been specially designed for large classes taught by non-specialist teachers. First, the visual aids consist simply of an easily fitted flannelgraph and flash-cards. Second, unlike the French-produced course which leaves the 'exploitation' part of the lesson entirely to the teacher, 'En Avant' spells out each stage of the teaching unit. It is thus

less demanding on the teacher's time and competence in French.

3.2.4 Teacher-training

A series of training courses was arranged by the Modern Language Advisor both during the experimental phase and phase I of the French programme. We shall distinguish two periods in teacher-training according to whether it falls within the scope of our own study or not.

1. Prior to October 1967

During this first period courses were organised in France and in Edinburgh.

There were two three-weeks intensive courses run in France at l'Ecole Normal Supérieure de St. Cloud by the Advisor in Modern Languages in collaboration with 'l'Institut Français d'Ecosse'. The syllabus included language classes, in which the 'Bonjour Line' course was used, translations, grammar, talks on French education and customs, and demonstrations of audio-visual methods. Twenty teachers attended the course on each occasion.

For two sessions from October 1965, an extensive twenty-weeks course was held in Edinburgh at l'Institut Français d'Ecosse. The course took place two hours a week after school hours. It was essentially based on the 'Bonjour Line' course and grammar was also provided. Approximately 30 teachers attended the course each year. Attendance was reported as being most irregular with numbers dwindling to nearly nothing towards the end of the session.

In addition to the training directly organised by the Modern Language Advisor, 63 teachers attended refresher courses in the evenings at Moray House Training College. The courses lasted one term and took place in October 1965 and in January, July and October 1966. Again, the 'Bonjour Line' course formed the basis of the syllabus.

It should be stressed at this point that although 'Bonjour Line' was widely used to train the teachers, a large number of them were already using the Nuffield Primary French course 'En Avant' in their classes.

As far as is known, no objective assessment of the teachers' ability and progress was made by the teacher-trainers.

2. After October 1967

The training courses organised by the Education Department, in collaboration with l'Institut Français d'Ecosse, from October 1967 to 1971 have been the object of our investigation. These training courses are listed in Table 2 although, in this particular section, we shall deal only with those courses run during Phase I of the programme.

Table 2 Training courses from 1967 to 1971

Phase of the programme	Session	No. of courses planned	No. of courses run	No. of trainees
I	1967/1968	4	4	80
II	1968/1969	3	3	63
III	1969/1971	6	3	27

In October 1967 the Education Department invited every primary school to send one teacher to the French Institute

to attend an extensive course of 40 hours spread over 20 weeks. The trainees were released from school for two hours once a week for half the duration of the course, but thereafter they had to attend after school hours.

For the first time the training was supervised by a member of the advisory staff who introduced the teaching of methodology into the course. This took up half of the available time. Twenty hours were thus devoted to language teaching. This was carried out by two members of the staff of the French Institute, both native speakers of French. Each of them taught 2 groups of 40 teachers and a different method was used with each group.

We shall describe the content and development of these training courses in a later chapter (see II: 1.2.2). Here it is sufficient to note that some difficulties arose during the course of training that seemed to be related to the manner in which the teachers were recruited.[1] In terms of language ability, the trainees' performance varied from little more than the monosyllabic to near-native fluency. In terms of interest in the language, an unspecified number of trainees seemed to be lacking in motivation to undergo training in French. It was thought that this lack of enthusiasm might be related to their attitude to the French programme itself. This aspect of the problem was investigated during our

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1 It should be stressed that it was never the intention of the Advisory Department to force PF onto Edinburgh schools. However, the primary headmasters who had been invited to assist in the PF programme were over-zealous in some cases in persuading their teachers to participate in the scheme.

study and will be reported in detail in part II of this work (see II; 5).

Inadequate entry behaviour and negative attitudes appear as the two major stumbling blocks standing in the way of efficient training. The results of our observations were transmitted to the advisory staff and may have contributed to a change in the policy of staffing.

3.3 Second Phase of the French Programme

3.3.1 Policy of Staffing

On 19th November 1968, at a meeting of the Joint Working Party,[1] it was agreed that certain features of the teaching programme should be revised; the most basic of these concerned the policy of staffing.

For the first time, the teacher's willingness to participate in the programme was mentioned and training was explicitly subordinated to the teacher's readiness to teach French. In a circular letter sent to the schools (November 1968), it was stated that "fluency and confidence (were) essential and all primary teachers willing to teach French should be offered suitable training."

A new system was devised in order to organise staffing on a different basis.

Under the new system, the teachers were to be classified into three categories, viz:

Category A: Those teachers who wanted to continue teaching French and felt competent to do so without further training.

Category B: Those teachers who, although willing to

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[1] This Joint Working Party was composed of 2 permanent committees: one of primary headmasters and one of secondary headmasters.

continue teaching, did not feel competent and wished to discontinue doing so until they had had further training.

Category C: Those teachers who wished to discontinue teaching French for a variety of other reasons.

This categorization was mainly left to the judgment of the teachers themselves since in terms of language ability there was no objective means of measurement that could be relied upon and used on a large enough scale. It was also feared that any form of authoritative classification, such as testing or interviewing, would embarrass the teachers and affect their good will. A number of teachers found it difficult to classify themselves and tended to base their decision on criteria unrelated to their command of French. The resulting list of the staff still to be involved in the French programme did not, therefore, fully mirror their language ability. For example, some teachers whose command of spoken French was very poor, placed themselves in Category A because they believed that the taking of French at University level must certainly qualify them to teach it; other teachers who would probably have opted for Category B or C felt an obligation to choose Category A. This was sometimes the case in schools where headmasters were anxious to avoid a situation which would result in pupils with one or two years of French being obliged to stop learning the language if certain teachers opted out of the programme. There were still other cases where teachers who were known to have the ability lacked confidence and placed themselves in the category of teachers

who were to discontinue teaching until further training was provided.

A general appraisal of the situation at the end of the school year (1968/69) showed that the new policy of more selective staffing had some positive results. It allowed among other things the withdrawal of those teachers who were deeply against the programme and those who were quite incompetent to carry it out. However, the new policy still could not ensure that a group of teachers with a reasonably uniform standard of competence in the language could be formed.

During 1969/70 the same (Phase 2) policy of staffing was followed, but its implementation was modified. At the beginning of the school session the advisory staff intervened to categorise the teachers according to the results of ad hoc interviews, class observations or testing of those teachers who had been on a training course. The categories decided upon by the advisory staff were not, however, binding on the teachers.

It was realised at this point that the introduction of any more changes, however desirable, would only damage the programme which had already been weakened by the publication of the report of the Scottish Education Department (1969) as will be discussed in a subsequent section (3.4.1).

3.3.2 Training

In the second phase of the programme, i.e. session 1968/69, the Advisory Department organised 3 in-service

courses each of six weeks' duration.[1] The 63 teachers who attended these courses were released from school every morning for the duration of the course (see Table 3).

Table 3 Details of the training courses run from 1968 to 1969

Date of Course	Place	Duration	Intensity	Level	No. of Teachers
September 1968-October 1968	Institut Français/ Roseburn Primary School	6 weeks	2 h.daily (40 h. language)	Beginners	21
October 1968-December 1968	"	"	"	Intermediate	22
April 1969-June 1969[2]	"	"	"	Advanced	20

The new policy of staffing had a direct bearing on the teachers' attitude because all the teachers on the 1968/69 courses were genuine volunteers.[3] It should be noted at this point that perhaps the fact that the courses took place during school hours was as influential in creating a favourable attitude among the teachers as the new policy. Thus, the problem of the teachers' negative attitude to training, which had been such a stumbling block in the previous session, did not arise in the 1968/69 courses.

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1 Each course of language classes which were given by the author took place at 'l'Institut Français' while the methodology classes which were given by the Edinburgh Advisory staff were held at Roseburn Primary School.

2 Two other courses were organised by the Education Department during the Easter and Summer vacations but since they were not restricted to Edinburgh PF teachers they are not relevant to our study.

3 In a short questionnaire given to 35 teachers, only two declared that they had been compelled to attend the course.

The modification of the staffing policy, however, did not provide a satisfactory solution to the problem of variations in the trainees' entry behaviour (to be studied in detail later (II: 3)). Each course and its intended level had been advertised in the schools and the teachers had applied for the one they thought was most suitable for them. This system of self-classification proved to be unsatisfactory and resulted in a lack of homogeneity in the classes which made training difficult.

For the same session (1968/69) and thereafter the Advisory Department have also organised evening classes for primary teachers. These courses, each of 2 terms' duration, take place once a week for 2 hours. They are run by a member of the advisory staff and by a secondary school teacher of French. These evening courses are mentioned because they form part of the effort made by the Education Department to organise teacher-training. Since they cannot be considered as full in-service courses, we do not intend to enlarge upon them here.

3.4 Third Phase of the French Programme

3.4.1 Report of the Scottish Education Department, 1969

In October 1969, the Scottish Education Department published a report entitled 'French in the Primary School' (S.E.D., 1969). This was to have a far-reaching effect on the PF programmes throughout Scotland and on the Edinburgh programme in particular.

This report was the result of a survey carried out in 8 areas of Scotland, between January and September 1968,

by a group of Her Majesty's Inspectors. Three hundred and twenty-five classes were visited in 106 primary schools. Among the points dealt with in the report, three are of particular interest to our study: (1) the qualifications and training of the teachers, (2) the attitude of the teachers and headmasters and (3) the assessment of the pupils' results.

The first two points were dealt with in detail in the preceding chapter (I: 2.3.2 and I: 2.5). We shall merely note here that the report emphasizes the general lack of sufficiently qualified teachers as well as the small number of teachers specially trained for PF teaching[1] (ibid.: 6). In addition, the report stresses the fact that only a minority of teachers had volunteered for PF teaching: "of the 307 teachers seen, 58 appeared to be either indifferent or hostile" (ibid.: 8). It is unfortunately not specified how this conclusion was drawn.

With regard to the third point, assessment of results, it was admitted (ibid.: 15) that the ability of the pupils to understand the spoken language was reasonably satisfactory even when they had not achieved anything else in French.[2]

As regards the pupils' ability to speak, the report states that since the majority of teachers were unable to distinguish the correct form of the language and produce

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1 The report remains silent on the 73 teachers (23%) who had studied French in an ordinary degree and it implies that a Higher-level standard is not sufficient.

2 In this connection, the report adds, however, that "the ability to understand spoken French is one which can be developed early and successfully in the secondary school" (ibid.: 15).

an acceptable version of it, bad habits were being taught in many cases. The report admits that as far as the degree of fluency is concerned many pupils had achieved "a creditable standard on a narrow front" (ibid.: 16). However, it is also stated that "the inability of pupils to use in new situations the vocabulary and structures they had learned was disappointing" (ibid.: 16). Finally, "the effect of French teaching on the general education of the pupils was slight ...." and except in some rare cases "French was regarded in many classes as just another subject to be covered." (ibid.: 17). The report concluded by mentioning the positive harm of inculcating bad linguistic habits and the unfortunate results of PF teaching on (1) the pupils' attitudes to the language in secondary school, (2) the rest of the primary curriculum and (3) the PF teachers for whom it was an additional burden.

In conclusion, the report recommended that opportunities for in-service training should be provided "that would develop the linguistic competence of the teachers and make them familiar with language teaching methods" (ibid.: 19). More constructive suggestions were put forward underlining the necessity of laying down a minimum standard of linguistic proficiency for any teacher taking French in the primary school.

3.4.2 Evolution of the French Programme

The S.E.D. report (ibid.) made a definite impact on the Edinburgh French programme. In a departmental

memorandum the Edinburgh Advisory Service regretted the negative emphasis of the report which had "dealt a blow to the morale of the teachers ... by painting the picture in such melancholy terms that it was widely believed to recommend that French in the Primary School be stopped". The same memorandum indicated that "even those teachers who, to date, had been enthusiastic found themselves on the defensive ... and those who had been unconvinced were persuaded they were wise to avoid the subject". The Advisory Service clearly expressed the need for an official statement of policy, since it was feared that in the absence of such statement the whole French programme would peter out. At the time of writing, i.e. three years after the S.E.D. report, no official statement has yet been made.

While Higher Education Authorities procrastinated, a gradual process of reduction in the number of schools teaching French started to take place as had been predicted by the Local Education Advisory staff. A comparison between returns from schools at three different periods clearly indicates the general trend (see Table 4).

Table 4 Number of Edinburgh schools and teachers involved in Primary French

Date	Schools doing no French	Schools doing French	No. of teachers
December 1969	19	71	198
May 1970	19	71	198
August 1970	38	52	144
May 1971	48	42	96
May 1972	56	34	62

The Edinburgh Advisory Service clearly realised that the reduction in the number of primary schools teaching PF would create difficulties for the secondary schools faced with a mixed intake of pupils from their 'feeder' primary schools. Therefore, steps were taken in the third phase of the policy to ensure that, in some definite areas, a close liaison between secondary and primary schools was established as well as a uniform entry of the primary pupils. However, for various reasons, e.g. the constant changing of primary staff, it was difficult to maintain this policy of restricted French teaching. By 1972, the 34 schools still teaching French were found in all areas of the city.

3.4.4 Training

The S.E.D. report (1969) did not immediately affect the number of schools teaching French because it was published after the school session had started (see Table 4). However, it had deep and immediate repercussions on teacher-training.

The Advisory Department planned s i x training courses for the session 1969-1971, as shown in Table 5, but the number of applicants for training diminished progressively after the publication of the report. Eventually, three courses had to be cancelled altogether for lack of applicants and one was run with only 5 trainees (Table 5). Table 5 indicates the training schedule over two years and its actual implementation.

Table 5 Course attendance compared (1969-1971)

Term	No. of teachers still involved in schools	Place of Course	Duration	Intensity	No. of Applicants	No. of trainees
Autumn 1969	198	French Institute/ Dean Centre	4 weeks	2 hours daily	18	15
Spring 1970	198	" "	"	"	8	7
Summer 1970	198	" "	"	"	5	cancelled
Autumn 1970	144	" "	6 weeks	2 hours daily	3	cancelled
Spring 1971	144	" "	"	"	8	5
Summer 1971	96	" "	"	"	cancelled	
Autumn 1971	62	" "	"	"	none	cancelled

3.4.5 Conclusion

The blow dealt to PF by the publication of the S.E.D. report came too soon for the Edinburgh programme to have had time to reap the benefit of the changes implemented by the Language Advisory Department. More precisely, the report came at a time when the PF programme was beginning to free itself from the pattern set previously by other schemes. As concerns the teachers, the policy of staffing was being rationalised at the same time as a new form of teacher-training was being developed. As concerns PF teaching itself, the Edinburgh French programme had started characterizing itself by the efforts accomplished to

integrate the language into the total primary situation. Under the stimulating leadership of Mr. John Clark, the then assistant language advisor, the possibilities of integration were being investigated and experiments were being carried out in some primary classes. When the report was published, it dampened the enthusiasm necessary to continue these educational changes.

The situation of the French programme during its third and present phase can be described as a 'situation d'attente'. Waiting for the situation of Primary French teaching to be officially encouraged or condemned. The Education Department keeps the programme going in those schools where the headmaster is favourable and teachers are available. It is realised that if the entire programme is allowed to peter out, it will be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to re-introduce it if, at a future date, the higher educational authorities express their approval of it.

In terms of our study, this unsettled situation means that all investigation and experiments concerning staffing and training had to be curtailed. Therefore, our conclusions are limited to the research we were able to carry out before the end of 1969.

CONCLUSION

A common pattern clearly emerges from our study of the literature on FLP teaching in the U.S. and in Britain.[1] it appears that, in both countries, similar causes have given rise to comparable consequences which, in turn, have been dealt with in similar terms, making allowance for some variations in the details. Four common features characterize the situation in both countries:

(i) The causes for FLP teaching are of the same order in both countries since its rapid development has been brought about by socio-economic pressures as well as by educational desirability.

(ii) In both countries, teaching was originally organised on the assumption that a FL was teachable by non-specialists without specifying how much or how little of the language the non-specialist teacher should know. As a result of this assumption, the in-service staff in the primary classes concerned have been heavily involved in FLP programmes on a non-selective basis.

(iii) A dual strategy has been adopted, in both countries,

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[1] We shall use the term Foreign Languages in Primary Schools (FLP) to refer both to the FLES programmes in the U.S. and P.F. programmes in Britain.

to make the use of non-specialist teachers a practical proposition. Specially designed materials have been produced and training has been organised for the in-service classroom teachers, until such time as the colleges of education should include a foreign language in their initial training.

(iv) In both countries, owing to the shortage of competent teachers, difficulties have been encountered in maintaining FLP programmes of sufficient quality. In connexion with these difficulties, a study of the situations in the U.S.A. and in Great Britain indicates that the teacher factor, alone of all the components involved in FLP programmes, has not given rise to specific research. Although it has been repeatedly alleged that this factor was essential, there is evidence that certain aspects of teaching and training have been overlooked. Firstly, it appears that the language required for FLP teaching has not been described. It seems that this language has been generally viewed as closely coinciding with that contained in the primary course materials. Since the linguistic task for which the teachers should be trained has not been specified, neither have the content and methods of training been established with sufficient precision. Secondly, no specific standards for teaching the language seem to have been laid down for FLP teachers. Furthermore, there is no evidence that any selection of teachers has been carried out on the basis of their oral ability in the language. In the absence of such standards, academic qualifications

have often been taken as an indication of actual ability in the teachers' oral competence in the language.

The more detailed study of the Edinburgh French programme which has been our particular field of experience, has shown that it broadly fitted the general pattern in its early phase. However, the Language Advisory Department soon realised the dangers that could result from following blindly the examples set previously by other FLP programmes. They, therefore, encouraged research into in-service teacher-training and made plans for recruiting PF staff in a way that took into account the teachers' ability in the language and their attitude to PF teaching. Finally, the integration of French was viewed as a necessity and attempts were made to put these views into practice.

The series of investigations reported in the second part of this work is an attempt to provide some evidence that the pattern adopted for staffing FLP programmes and training FLP teachers should be reconsidered in general if a foreign language is to maintain itself as a normal part of the primary curriculum.

PART II

PRELIMINARY STUDY TO THE PLANNING

OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

The series of investigations presented in this part of the work has been carried out within the context of the Edinburgh training programme for Primary French (PF) Teachers during the years 1967 to 1970. The aim of these five distinct investigations is two-fold; we have sought (1) to establish how the PF teachers should be trained and what they should be trained for and (2) to specify who, among the in-service primary teachers should be trained. It is stressed that our research is limited to training in the language; training in teaching methods being the responsibility of the Local Education Authority.

The first aim, i.e. establishing the basis on which training materials can be designed, is dealt with in the first two chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the main characteristics of a suitable approach to teacher-training as it was developed from our experience in training. Chapter 2 presents a linguistic investigation of PF viewed not so much as a subject as an integrated part of the primary school day. The description of the language relevant to PF clearly delineates the syllabus content of

a PF training course.

The second aim is dealt with in the remaining three chapters. In these chapters we have collected the background information necessary to reach a better understanding of the type of primary teachers who can be trained with a reasonable chance of success. It appears - both from our own experience as well as from the study of the situation in the USA and in Britain - that the problem of efficient training revolves round two parameters, i.e. teacher-ability and teacher-attitude. In relation to the first parameter we have sought (i) to define operationally the minimum level of ability that should be required of primary teachers before and after training, (ii) to devise means of assessing the teachers' ability in the relevant language and (iii) to study the relationship between the teachers' ability and their pupils' achievement in PF. In relation to the second parameter our investigation has tried to identify (i) the various attitudes on PF teaching which were held by the in-service teachers whom we have had the opportunity to train, (ii) the components of such attitudes and their possible relationship with teacher-ability in French.

It is on the basis of such a preliminary study that we have designed our training materials and laid down the limits within which we believe in-service training can be relied upon to provide a source of efficient PF teachers.

CHAPTER 1

FIELD EXPERIENCE

In this chapter we shall be concerned with analysing our own experience in running the experimental training courses mentioned in the previous chapter. They were experimental in the sense that the course materials were being tried out and also in the sense that the teachers were subjected to tests and other investigations.

As in any preliminary phase of a study, observation played an important role. It yielded certain kinds of information which it would have been difficult to obtain otherwise. It also indicated what particular experiments should be carried out and, in general, it led to a fuller understanding of the problems involved in in-service training.

1.1 Organisational aspects of the courses

1.1.1 Description

Thirteen in-service training courses were run by the Education Department with the collaboration of 'l'Institut Francais d'Ecosse' in Edinburgh (see Table 1).

Table 1 List of in-service courses run by the Education Department (1967/1971)

Type	No. of Training Groups under this type	Date	Time of day	Duration	Frequency	Total no. of hours	Language	No. of Trainees
1 (extensive)	4	1967/68	After school	20 weeks	2h. week	40	20	20
2 (intensive)	3	1968/69	Morning	6 weeks	2h. daily	60	40	18
3 "	1	1968/69	Easter vacs.[1]	2 weeks	4h. daily	40	30	8
4 "	1	1968/69	Summer vacs.[1]	3 weeks	3h. daily	45	35	7
5 "	3	1969/70	Afternoon	4 weeks	2h. daily	40	28	10
2 "	1	1970/71	Afternoon	6 weeks	2h. daily	60	46	5

[1] The courses held during vacations were open to all British teachers. Only five Edinburgh teachers attended at Easter and one during the Summer vacations.

Methodology classes were run by a member of the Advisory Staff for all 13 courses. The author of this study, a native speaker of French on the Institute Staff, was in charge of all language classes for eleven training groups which are the object of our investigations. The language classes of two of the extensive courses were run by another member of the Institute Staff. They will only be taken as occasional points of reference and control.

1.1.2 Analysis

Types of Course: Two types of course, extensive and intensive, were held. They varied widely in duration, intensity and timing (see Table 1). Extensive classes lasted the whole school year and had a duration and frequency of 2 hours each week. Intensive classes lasted only a few weeks but were held daily, either in the mornings or afternoons or sometimes both, i.e. 2 to 4 hours per day. The teachers attending the intensive courses did so during school hours.[1]

The variations in the duration, intensity and timing of the courses were governed by a number of external factors, the main one being the annual budget available for teacher training. Classes held during school hours cost more since they required replacement teachers and since afternoon courses take up 2 school hours as against 3 hours in the morning. Thus, the timing factor was mainly an economic consideration. The structure of the

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[1] Except for two training courses held during vacations.

academic year was also important in setting a course pattern, e.g. the 1967/1968 courses lasted 20 weeks only because the Institut Français could provide teacher-trainers for 10 weeks each term. An additional type of course (Type 3) lasted two weeks because this was the duration of the Easter vacation.

Internally, successive experiments with various types of courses have led to recommendations that have been instrumental in bringing about certain changes, when external factors allowed. Thus, it was recommended that the extensive course used during 1967/68 should be replaced by an intensive type to be run during school hours and this was done for 1968/1969.

1.1.3 Effect of the Organisational Factor

The organisational structure of a PF course was seen to have a particularly important impact on the trainees and also on the implementation of the syllabus.

1. Trainees

The time of day when the classes are held has a direct bearing on the trainees. Type 1 course (Table 1) proved to be unsatisfactory because the learners attended after school hours from 3.30 to 5.30 p.m. They often arrived late and sometimes asked to leave early. They were tired, hungry and often too preoccupied with their own family commitments to benefit from the course. This experiment led directly to the introduction of type 2 courses which took place in the mornings, an arrangement that proved to be ideal for good training. The enthusiasm

of the teachers was high since they did not feel tired or burdened with school or home problems. Unfortunately, at school level, some problems arose from the fact that the children were in the hands of replacement teachers for the main part of the day. For this reason, and also because it was cheaper to provide replacement teachers in the afternoon, another type of course that lasted from 1.45 to 3.45 p.m. was organised for 1969/1970. Tiredness was again a problem and the classes slightly encroached on the teachers' own time after school.

Frequency, also, has a direct bearing on the trainees as learners, in particular on their attitude to the course and on their retention of the language materials.

In terms of attitude, an extensive course does not favour an easy relationship either between teacher-trainer and trainees or within the group. In such a type of course, family commitments, school duties, illnesses, etc., interfere too much with the trainees' efforts to sustain interest in the course. On the other hand, an intensive course facilitates personal contacts within the group which, in turn, facilitates communication in French by lessening the trainees' reluctance to speak the language in front of their colleagues.

Duration. We could not observe any relationship between the duration, i.e. the actual number of hours scheduled in a course, and the attitude, favourable or otherwise, of the trainees.

In terms of the trainees' retention of language

materials our experience seems to provide empirical support to the theory that, in connection with memory, "loss of retention is related to activity and experience during the intervening period" (Borger et al., 1966: 155). We have observed that an extensive course results in lower retention than an intensive course probably because of the amount of linguistic activities in English between the periods when foreign language learning takes place.

2. Syllabus Design

Duration is normally a determinant factor in the planning and implementation of a syllabus. Duration primarily affects the amount of language materials that can be taught. A total of 20 hours (as in type 1 extensive course) proved to be quite inadequate considering the specific objectives of the course. Forty-six hours which was the highest number of hours scheduled for day-time courses was fairly sufficient to cover the ground for trainees whose prior knowledge of French was adequate. For the others, it was insufficient.

Since, as was to be expected, the duration of the course determines the amount of the syllabus that could be covered in the time, it follows that it must also affect its objectives. Thus, some techniques for reaching these objectives, e.g. group-work, flannelgraph-use, production of teaching materials would either be dealt with inadequately or omitted altogether.

Course duration also has a bearing on the method and techniques of teaching.

Short duration courses had to be limited to the use of a drill-based method because this permits the greatest amount of "speech behaviour" in the limited time available. Such a method was found to be particularly suitable for trainees with a poor level of language ability. The well-tried drill techniques allowed intensive practice of what will be referred to subsequently (III: 1.1.3) as "high-priority objectives", i.e. the accurate manipulation of the language contained in the teaching materials for children.

Courses of longer duration allowed one to take the trainees one step further by employing techniques that encourage the creative use of language and the development of fluency.

1.1.4 Procedure for recruiting trainees

During the period under study the administrative procedure for recruiting trainees remained almost unaffected by the evolution of the staffing policy as was seen in a previous chapter (I: 3.3.2). Firstly, the training courses planned for an academic session were advertised in the schools by the Education Department. From 1968, the level of the courses to be run was also specified, e.g. beginners, intermediate and advanced. Secondly, the teachers applied for the course they wanted. It is not known on what basis they applied but the situation at school level appears to have been extremely varied. There is a suggestion that the motives underlying a teacher's application were a combination of his

own individual desires and a knowledge of the requirements of his school as expressed by the headmaster, colleagues or the children's parents. The final step in the procedure was for the Education Department to accept the teachers' applications on a non-selective basis and arrange for replacement teachers if required. This procedure was observed to have a bearing on (i) the range of language ability on any course and (ii) the teachers' attitudes to training.

(i) Owing to the fact that the teachers had themselves selected the level of the course they thought they required the groups lacked homogeneity and some included trainees at both ends of the ability range.

At the lower end of the range, there were trainees whose performance in French did not amount to much more than monosyllables. They were often unable to repeat correctly short, simple sentences. Their performance in the language was generally unintelligible at the grammatical and phonemic level. Some of them were, understandably, very reluctant to express themselves in French. On the other hand, some were totally unaware of their lack of proficiency in the language. Oral comprehension obviously raised similar problems with those trainees who were unable to understand anything but simple, short sentences spoken very slowly. It is doubtful whether this type of trainee drew much benefit from the training course.

At the other end of the ability range, some trainees

displayed a near-native or language specialist fluency and had no oral comprehension difficulties. It is doubtful whether these trainees required language training at all. At any rate, they would have required a completely different kind of training.

(ii) The teachers' attitudes to training were directly affected by the policy of staffing adopted by the Education Department. In 1967, during Phase I of the French programme when one teacher from each corporation school was sent on the course, it was apparent that a number of them had been given little alternative. One can only hypothesize on the kind of pressure put on the reluctant applicants at school level. Some trainees were observed to display all the outward signs of discontent. Attendance was most irregular and tended to decrease as the weeks went by. Any trivial excuse would be given for leaving early or being late or absent. No excuse was provided at all towards the end of the course. Enthusiasm was generally lacking and few questions were asked during the classes. No attempt was made to carry out any home-work. Communication between trainees and trainer was difficult although occasionally a few trainees would express their feelings, negative or otherwise, towards the French scheme.

It is realised that these observations were very impressionistic. However, they were strengthened by the fact that they were repeatedly made by the teacher-trainer and that they were confirmed by the Modern Language Advisor

in charge of the course.

The problem of the trainees' negative attitudes practically disappeared in the following 1968/1969 session when Phase II of the staffing policy allowed most of the teachers who were against the French programme to opt out of it (I: 3.3.1).

1.2 Empirical development of method and techniques

1.2.1 Purpose

It is always difficult to obtain any evidence of the advantages of a particular teaching method without a control group. In the absence of such a group, we shall attempt to justify our choice of training methods and techniques[1] by showing how they were empirically developed during the course of our experience in training.

Furthermore, we believe that the novelty of PF teaching demands the re-examination of some essential features of language teaching in the light of our specific context, i.e. we shall consider in turn the importance of grammar, oral practice, and transfer in PF teacher-training.

1.2.2 Choice of Training Materials

It has been mentioned in an earlier chapter that no specific materials have been published for PF training. Therefore, one of the two teacher-trainers decided to use the CREDIF course 'Voix et Images de France'

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[1] In terms of linguistics, a method can be defined as "a set of principles related to an aim and subject to evaluation" while a technique can be defined as "a procedure derived from a method but subject to the practical restrictions of the teaching situations" (Howatt, 1966).

which, although designed for non-specific adult learners, is reported as being widely used for training in England. (Schools Council, 1966.)

Because it was thought to be more relevant in terms of language content, the author of this study chose, at first, to use the Nuffield Primary Course, 'En Avant', thus following the example of other experienced training centres which were using teaching materials designed for children. However, after a fortnight of sheer boredom on the part of trainer and trainees alike, the absurdity of this decision became evident. Although we shall not, at this point, analyse the reasons underlying the failure of this first attempt, (II: 1.3.2), we shall state that the very reasons why a course is suitable for children make it unsuitable for adults, even if these adults are teachers.

Since the use of a primary course was deemed to be as inadequate for teacher-training as was a course for non-specific adult learners, the author came to the conclusion that the obvious solution was to design a course specially tailored to the PF teachers' needs.

1.2.3 The Teaching of Grammar

Problems. The first problem that arose at this stage concerned the teaching of grammar. Should the grammatical rules be implicit and the trainees left to induce these rules from drills, when a drill-based method is used? Or should the teacher-trainer make these rules explicit, in which case, should he do so before the drills

or after the drills?[1]

Group differentiation. These two main possibilities were tried out with two groups of trainees. The advanced group was given no grammatical rules at all. We assumed that all that these trainees needed was performance of the basic patterns of the language to reactivate what they already knew.

The second group which was classified as poor, was given short rules at the beginning of the language class in the hope that this would reduce the time spent on inducing the rules from the pattern drills, these drills being used as exponents of the rules. There follows an example of the type of rules that were written up on the blackboard.

Example:	IL	+	MANGE	+	(DU PAIN (DE La VIANDE (DES FRUITS
Rule:	Sujet	+	VERBE	+	(du (de la + Nom (des
	Sujet	+	EN	+	Verbe
	IL	+	EN	+	mange

The rules were kept very basic for direct use, e.g. in the particular transformation given above nothing would have been gained by differentiating, as most traditional textbooks do, between DU surface realisation of DE LE (e.g. le chapeau du garçon) and DU semantically related to the deep-structure of the sentence (e.g. il mange du pain).

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[1] The drills we used were specifically designed for teacher-training but were based on the grammatical patterns included in the Nuffield French course (see Appendix A1).

Language difficulties. The language used during exposition of the rules raised a special problem. If the rule was explained in English, communication of the meaning was adequate but the time used for explanation was wasted as far as French was concerned. On the other hand, if French was used, communication often broke down because the trainees were not able to follow a theoretical explanation in the foreign language; also because French grammatical terminology is often different from that used in most British textbooks, thus requiring a "mise au point", first.

Programming grammar. It was thought that programming the grammatical points might overcome the practical difficulties mentioned above as well as those relating to individual differences in learning. As an experiment, two grammatical points were programmed and given to the trainees to study at home. This attempt failed through lack of interest on the learners' part.

Rule efficiency. Under the circumstances (lack of time, reluctance of some trainees who already felt that they were being used as guinea pigs, absence of control group, etc.) it was impossible to measure experimentally the extent of the practical help grammar rules gave the trainees in performing the drills. However, some information about the value of explicit grammatical rules was obtained by chance. When carrying out the item analysis of the pilot test that all trainees had to take at the end of the course (II: 3.2.2) it was found, on

analysis, that the results on some items were in complete disagreement with the rest of the results. This is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Item analysis of the grammatical contrast "c'est/il est".

1. Examples of some normal results

Item Number	Facility of the item	Discrimination Value
6.7	50%	0.77
6.8	55%	0.66
6.9	66%	0.44

2. Results of "c'est/il est" items

3.1	77%	0
3.2	88%	0
3.3	66%	0.22
3.4	22%	- 0.44
3.5	46%	- 0.11
3.6	50%	- 0.11

It is seen that the six items based on the use of the contrast "c'est/il est" had a discrimination index which was either negative, null or very low, i.e. on these items the trainees in the poorer group did better or as well as those in the advanced group thus giving results contrary to the information given by the test as a whole (Ingram, in Davies, 1968). The results given in this particular block of items were so striking that they could not be discarded as being just bad items and an interpretation of the results was sought. Since the difficulty level of some items was high or very high, it could not be assumed that the trainees in the poorer group had done as well as the others because the items were too easy. It

is assumed that these results were due to the fact that the poorer group had been given the rules governing the contrastive use of "c'est/il est" while the other trainees had been left to rely on their memory of school grammar books which, from our observations, are patently lacking in good description of this particular contrast.

Trainees' opinion. A different assessment of the usefulness of grammatical rules was also obtained by a short questionnaire given to two other groups of trainees (N = 30). It produced the following results:

Question	No. of answers	Percentage of answers
Do you find that grammatical rules		
- help a lot?	10	33%
- help sometimes?	18	60%
- do not help?	2	6%

The two trainees who stated that the rules did not help gave the additional information that the rules actually impeded their performance of the language.

It was also observed, both in the classroom and during language laboratory sessions, that practice of the basic patterns of the language sometimes conflicted not only with the trainees' native language habits but also with some prescriptive notion that they had about French originating from their school days. Practically, it meant that far from performing the drills with an open mind to abstract the rule, some of the trainees clung to their memory of certain inadequate rules. This led to a kind of deafness to the trainer's correction whenever the correction did

not fit the model they had internalised.

1.2.4 Oral Practice

In the classroom. The main purpose of pattern drilling practice was to ensure that the trainees could manipulate the language elements contained in the primary course which they were using in their own classes (e.g. 'En Avant').

Systematic drilling in the classroom without visual aids proved to be ineffective because (i) it obliged the trainer to explain the extra-linguistic context and give the cues orally; (ii) it was too artificial under classroom conditions;[1] (iii) the practical slowness of the procedure reduced the number of possibilities of utterance production for each trainee;[2] (iv) the trainees were exposed as much to their colleagues' 'intermediate language' (Selinker, 1969) as to the trainer's authentic model.

It should be noted that in general with motivated adult learners the artificiality of pattern drills need not cause great concern if they are made to feel that this technique helps them to gain a better command of the language. However, in this particular training situation,

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1 To counteract the artificiality of the drills, one felt the need for communication between trainer and trainees but encouragements, questioning, answers to individual questions, jokes, etc., showed down the drilling process.

2 It was recorded that each trainee could only produce about six utterances in a fifty-five minute period which gave, for a class of twenty, an average of 27 seconds for the complete series cue-response-correction-repetition. Chorus answers were sometimes used as a 'pisaller'; this technique was mainly useful as a device to overcome the trainees' shyness and reluctance to speak French in front of their colleagues.

it was felt that a different technique should be sought that would not have the same disadvantages. It was found that the introduction of visual aids answered some of our needs.

Language laboratory. Oral practice in the language laboratory was then tried with tapes specially prepared for the purpose by the author. It provided the teacher-trainer with valuable information on the trainees' real capacity in French, which could be reliably estimated by listening-in from the console. Moreover, in terms of course-design, it drew our attention to some of the difficulties that even good trainees had in mastering accurately some of the language patterns included in the Nuffield French course, e.g. the use of 'en' or the use of presentatives like "c'est, il est, il y a, voilà", or phonological contrasts like "il n'en a pas/il n'y en a pas". All these proved to be more difficult than was expected.

For the trainees, the positive aspects of a language laboratory technique were as follows: (i) Maximum performance of the language elements was ensured, e.g. tape no. 3 of the pilot materials elicited forty active responses on ear-training and seventy-five on pattern drills within twenty-five minutes. (ii) Near-complete accuracy in grammar and pronunciation was reached by a majority of the trainees, provided they were given enough time to go over an exercise several times in order to be able to shape their own responses. (iii) Learning was

individualised since the trainees were free to practice whatever patterns they felt the need for.

Now, we turn to the negative aspects of the language laboratory. Some were caused by the inexperience of the trainer who designed the pilot materials and by the insufficient amount of language hours available. However, other negative aspects seemed to be intrinsic within the technique itself. Perhaps the most striking of these aspects was the limited role played by the trainer at the control desk. It was observed repeatedly that interruption and correction of the trainees' work, if not directly requested by the trainees, caused dismay and disturbed more than it helped. On the other hand, help was very rarely asked for by the trainees, even if they could be heard to have difficulty with a word or a pattern that they were unable to grasp.

Another difficulty which seemed to be inherent in language laboratory technique was the design of the drills themselves. Since, in drills, the "learners are supplied with ready-made attitudes and intentions" as well as "with the form their utterances are to assume" (Julian Dakin, 1968) the prompting devices required to elicit some specific responses often had to be unduly complicated. Increasing the contextualisation of the drills required the introduction of more extra-linguistic information and this seemed to increase even more the difficulty that the trainees had in grasping what was expected of them.

It was found that some of the unsatisfactory aspects

of the laboratory technique could be avoided if language work was integrated into a larger framework of teaching, i.e. if the language laboratory was used as follow-up teaching of materials presented initially in the classroom. This practice created a useful state of readiness in the trainees and they were observed to reach satisfactory accuracy in sentence production after fewer trials than before. As for the drills themselves, it was simpler to design their prompts because the context of situations or the drills presented visually in the classroom could be referred to.

1.2.5 Contextualisation: purpose and technique

After the first extensive course, when more time became available for training, the language content of each lesson was introduced in a meaningful context of situation. This consisted of a dialogue presented either in the classroom and illustrated with flannelgraph figurines or in the language laboratory.

It was thought that the trainees needed some form of connected speech model in the FL. Furthermore, it related the structural patterns of language to the whole behavioural pattern.

Contribution. In practice, it was observed that this approach had a bearing on the trainees' retention of the model pattern. Easier recall of language presented in situation was shown by the fact that sentences of a dialogue would sometimes be quoted during the course of a conversation between colleagues long after those sentences

had been presented. This was in clear contrast to language presented in isolation in laboratory drills which was never heard to be used meaningfully. However, it should be pointed out that, whereas the trainees could recall and appropriately use whole language utterances, they were not observed to be able to change their structure readily.

On a very different level, language presented in a situational context contributed something positive to the class by giving the trainees the feeling that they were learning about French social behaviour. They enjoyed being told in authentic French the continuous story of a French family on holiday. Their interest was shown by the questions asked about France and the French way of life after each dialogue.

With regard to the design of the course itself, the contextualised presentation of the language proved to be useful because the situations could be used as references for subsequent language work and could provide a basis for non-systematic work, e.g. questions and answers, story-building, semi-controlled conversations, etc.

1.2.6 Transfer

"Practice" and "exploitation". It is a pedagogical truism that language drills are no guarantee of accurate performance in "free" speech. Our observations of the trainees' use of French outside systematic teaching certainly confirmed this widely shared view about the limited value of drills. It was repeatedly observed

that, when the trainees' attention was on what they wanted to express and not on the form of the expression, they would often produce deviant sentences even if the patterns of these sentences had been practised quite correctly in the laboratory.

Exploitation of the teaching materials was therefore a means of remedying the false security given by the drills. For example, after practising structures of the form "c'est à qui? c'est à ....." for a whole period, a trainee was heard to ask in the exploitation stage, "how do you say, 'whose hat'"?!

Trainer's control over special production. There is some contradiction between the aim of the exploitation stage, which is to invite the trainees to produce free and genuine language, and that of the training requirements which are to help the same trainees to 're-use' the specific language of the lesson. The problem for the course-designer is to strike a balance between these two contradictory aims and develop techniques which allow maximum control over the trainees' speech production while making them feel they have maximum freedom of choice.

We shall examine here the respective advantages of different techniques for resolving the above situation.

(i) It was observed that problem-solving games and role-playing allowed more intensive control of the language produced than other techniques while providing situations where language could be used naturally.

(ii) Semi-controlled conversations sometimes called

"conventional conversations" were found to be rather artificial. Language in that case was rarely initiated by the trainees and it was difficult to conceal the fact that language was produced for its own sake.

(iii) Story-building techniques using symbolic figurines on the flannelgraph were much more successful. The language produced during such exercises could be partly controlled semantically by the figurines used. It was more difficult to control structurally. For instance, it was recorded that a visual prompt suggesting the idea that there was no milk for somebody's breakfast elicited the following answers:

- Il n'y a pas de lait.
- Il n'a pas de lait.
- Sa femme a oublié d'acheter du lait.
- Il y a la grève des laitiers.
- La laitier n'est pas venu.
- Hier soir, la boutique du laitier était fermée.
- Il n'aime pas le lait.
- Son chat a bu le lait.
- Il a cassé la bouteille de lait.

The language produced varied widely in complexity, fluency and accuracy according to the trainees' capacity in French but it should be stressed that all trainees, whatever their ability, were able to produce language relevant to the story.

(iv) Group-work techniques raised interest in the trainees who even agreed to prepare this work outside the

course. In terms of speech-production it was originally thought that the very nature of the task would control the language produced. We predicted, for instance, that the imperative of some verbs like "enlever, poser, mettre, plier, faire attention à" together with prepositions like "au fond de, dessus, dessous, sur le côté" would be elicited by the following task:

"Madame Leclerc (one of the characters in the dialogues) tells her son how to pack a case".

The results of this task were disappointing in terms of language. Speech production was limited to a list of clothing items, accompanied by an excellent manual demonstration of how to pack a case. This example is representative of the language generally produced in group-work. The kind of French produced tends to be either too elementary, gesticulation often replacing speech communication, or too ambitious and thus loaded with errors.

It was also observed that individual participation was very unequal within the work groups.

A slightly different kind of group-work was tried which required the trainees to produce materials for their own primary classes or to demonstrate a lesson taken from the Nuffield course. This did not raise as much enthusiasm as the work just described, although in terms of speech production the results were appropriate to our purpose.

(v) Non-directive techniques, applied to conversational groups, were tentatively tried. Although potentially

interesting, these techniques were found to be unrealistic for use in language courses of less than one hundred hours or with trainees of less than advanced standard. Games, problem-solving, role-playing and story-building emerged as the most satisfactory techniques.

Group suitability. As regards the use of particular "exploitation" techniques with particular groups, we found that the amount of control the trainer had on speech production could be considered as a criterion of group suitability. By this, is meant that the more control a trainer has on the language produced by the trainees (i.e. the less freedom the trainees have) the more suitable the technique seems to be for beginners or elementary groups. Conversely, techniques that give the trainees extensive freedom to use an unpredictable amount of language which may be irrelevant to the teachers' basic needs seem to be more suitable for advanced groups. This conclusion led us to reconsider the place of the 'exploitation' stage in each unit of teaching.

Place of the "exploitation" stage in the teaching unit. The accepted approach is to place this stage after presentation and practice of the language. This sequencing was used in our first experimental courses. However, our observations showed that in the case of remedial teaching, the propitious moment for introducing this stage could not be pre-determined when designing the course but depended on the trainees' ability in French as assessed by the trainer.

We found, for example, that some beginners' groups could not reach the "exploitation" stage at all within the strict time limit of a forty-hour course. This was not because of the trainees' inability to carry out, at least, some of the exercises proposed, but because it took them too long to reach that stage. With such groups, the presentation and practice parts of all the lessons were taught first and then, time allowing, some "exploitation" of the language was carried out towards the end of the whole course. This procedure, apart from serving the normal purpose of "exploitation", was found to be a useful means of revising the language taught during the course.

Conversely, we found that some advanced groups did not need to go through all the language practice but could proceed directly from the presentation stage to the "exploitation" stage which then served a somewhat different purpose. It was no longer meant to bring to active and meaningful use the language that had just been taught but rather <u>to reactivate the language that was known prior to the course</u>.

The trainer's main problem is thus to discover whether or not the trainees require to proceed through all the sequences of language included in the teaching unit. Pre-testing for each unit of work was tried out and abandoned as impracticable. The necessity to diagnose the trainees' knowledge in each area led us to experiment with and develop the technique of story-building. This had originally been conceived as part of the "exploitation"

stage, but was now to be used as an introduction to each unit. We shall discuss the details of this particular approach subsequently (II: 1.4.1 and III: 2.2.4).

The background information collected by uncontrolled observations during the courses from 1967 to 1971 served two main purposes. One of these dealt with the conditions within which in-service teacher-training can be successfully carried out, the other with the design of the training course itself.

1.3 Characteristics of PF training

1.3.1 Remedial teaching

Since all the trainees have been exposed to some of the language prior to attending a training course, PF training is essentially remedial in character. The concept of remedial teaching has received some attention in terms of language content but very little in terms of methods of teaching. The accepted approach for all classes of learners is to present the language first in a meaningful context before it is practised and finally re-used or 'exploited'. The teaching sequence 'presentation - repetition - exploitation' closely corresponds to the variables intervening in the process of learning (Ingram, 1967). These are acquisition of the new materials, their memorization and the ability to transfer or adapt them to other contexts.

Is this approach relevant to remedial teaching? It may be so if it is considered that what has been learnt previously should be discounted. However, our own

experience has led us to believe that this strategy of '*tabula rasa*' is often unsuitable. We have noted earlier (II: 1.2.3) that previous exposure to the language produces in many learners a certain deafness to new presentation of language when it does not match the model they have internalized. Moreover, it often gives them a dangerous feeling of '*déjà vu*'.[1]

We suggest that the difficulties encountered in remedial teaching may be caused by the lack of correspondence between the psychological variables intervening in learning and the language teaching sequences. In other words, the learners are expected to go through the whole psychological sequence, acquisition - retention - transfer, again when, in fact, they have already reached the transfer stage. Research is needed to determine the psychological process involved in re-learning. It may be that the necessity to match the language already internalized with the forms presented anew and the rejection of the incorrect forms previously memorized are factors to be taken into account.

Therefore, it is our contention that in order to be remedial, language teaching must assume a slightly different approach in its method. We recommend the introduction of an additional stage which should precede the usual three stage sequence. The aim of this introductory stage is to guide the learners to recover and verbalize whatever

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[1] Observation that new presentation of language is often ineffective is supported by the cases of foreigners speaking fluently an incorrect form of a FL even after years of daily contact with authentic linguistic data.

language has been internalized prior to new teaching. Not only does this procedure give the learner an insight into his ability in the relevant language but it provides the teacher-trainer with evidence of the quantity and quality of the language previously learnt and remembered. The appropriate technique used during that stage - which we call 'retrieval' - is described later in this work (III: 2.2.4).

1.3.2 Specificity of requirements

Another feature of PF courses is the specificity of their requirements in terms of training materials.

Although the trainees are teachers, the primary course they use in their schools cannot be considered as satisfactory material for training. In the first place, the language content of such material is only partly appropriate to the trainees' needs. The PF teacher requires more than a good command of the language contained in the primary course, if only to ask questions and give orders. Mere parroting of the course content cannot be regarded as any more desirable in French than in the teaching of any other subject. Secondly, since the learning of adults is of a different kind to that of children, the whole approach to teaching should be different from that used in children's courses. Primary courses are mainly based on behavioural principles with dialogues to be learnt by heart and patterns drilled ad nauseam. A more analytical approach with some overt teaching of grammar seems to be appropriate in PF training

and is more likely to motivate the trainees.

On the other hand, PF courses cannot be assimilated to commercially-produced general courses for non-specific adults. The content of such courses rarely coincides with the trainees' needs because (i) it covers far too wide an area of language and (ii) it often lacks many of the grammatical and lexical items necessary for PF teaching.

We believe that a PF course shares much in common with a 'vocational' or specialised language course in the sense that the language taught is going to be used for working purposes. It follows that the content of a training course should be based on an analysis of the language required to carry out the 'job'. This is the only guarantee that limited learning time will not be wasted in the learning of irrelevant language. On the other hand, PF training differs from other vocational language courses in its dual aspect of the trainees who are both learners and teachers.

1.3.3 Nature of classroom language

The nature of the linguistic acts performed during a PF class is as important to teacher-training as is an analysis of their language content. The accepted notion that language is normally creative and used for communication does not appear to hold true in language teaching proper. We have found from experience that language in the PF class is rarely used for genuine communication because the teacher already knows the

answers to his questions and his pupils are aware of this. Moreover, an important amount of language in the PF class is not normally creative but stimulus-bound for teacher and pupils (the course materials acting as a stimulus for the teacher and his questions acting in the same way for his pupils). It seems that the performance mechanisms involving intentional and semantic choice at a cognitive level (Corder, 1966; Wales et al., 1966) intervene little or not at all in the PF lesson when the primary course is used. The closest one can get to a situation of real communication is when the teacher gives an order which is obeyed by his pupils.

The absence of feedback from the pupils is also characteristic of PF teaching. If the teacher obtains a response to his question, it may act as a reinforcement of his teaching method rather than a reinforcer of his utterance which might be unintelligible by native-speaker's standard. Conversely, if no response is obtained from the class this is no indication that the teacher's own performance of the language is inadequate as it would be in normal communication between a foreigner and a native-speaker. In case of no response, it may be either the method of teaching which is to blame or the level of the pupils' ability.

One of the consequences of the special nature of classroom language is the secondary role played by the receptive skills in PF teaching. The teacher's listening mechanisms are rarely fully involved because there rarely

is any genuine message passing from the pupils as encoders of spontaneous utterances to the teacher as decoder.

Another consequence due to the lack of feedback and the exposure to inadequate linguistic data in the classroom is that the teacher's competence in the language is likely to deteriorate gradually after the training course is over. These same two drawbacks produce a feeling of depressing artificiality in the teacher who will then be tempted to use English more and more during his PF classes - the country and the people whose language he teaches may at such time appear as remote to him as it does to his primary pupils.

1.4 Conclusions based on field experience

Field experience as reported in the previous sections of this chapter has led us to outline and study the closely interrelated factors at work in in-service training for PF teaching. This has shown that effectiveness in PF training involves more than the design of adequate training materials. Although essential, these materials can only achieve valid results under certain conditions which will be specified in this section.

1.4.1 Factors at work

An in-service training course is seen to consist of 3 central factors that are themselves related to one or more aspects of the external context.

Central factors. These factors may be summed up by stating that in terms of training we want to know who is

given what and when, i.e. the trainees, the course materials and the organisation of the course constitute the 3 central factors.

(i) The trainees are the main core of the problem. We have observed that not all trainees were willing to be trained and not all of those that were willing were capable of being trained. We conclude, therefore, that the trainee-factor consists of their attitude to French teaching and training and their ability in the language before and after training.

(ii) The course materials are seen to consist essentially of two variables, i.e. language content and method of teaching as used by the teacher-trainer.

(iii) The organisational factor is believed to consist of the duration of the course, its intensity and its location in the day.

External factors. Each of the above factors is related to one or several aspects of the external context.

(i) The trainee-factor stands at the centre of the most complex set of relationships. First of all, it is related to the manner in which the trainees have been recruited. Second, it is also related to the value of French as officially recognised by Higher Educational Authorities. It partly depends on the status of French in the trainees' own schools, e.g. does the headmaster approve of French teaching? Are the pupils' parents favourable to their children learning French? Furthermore, it is influenced by the teacher-trainer and the course

materials chosen.

(ii) The course materials are affected by the course organisation and obviously by the trainer who chooses which materials to use and adapts them to the training groups.

(iii) Finally, the organisational factor depends on the decisions taken by the Local Education Authorities which in turn are influenced by the policy of Central Government and the annual budget.

1.4.2 Specification of training conditions

It seems reasonable to view the trainees as the key-stone of an in-service course since no successful training can be achieved without their co-operation. Therefore, the two basic conditions for training in-service PF teachers will be centred on the trainees, viz. (i) their motivation in undergoing training and (ii) their ability to do so.

(i) Motivation

The trainees should feel that training is worthwhile because French teaching is educationally desirable for their pupils and can also be of interest to themselves. It is too early to indicate with full details how one can ensure that all the trainees are sufficiently motivated but our observations point to a number of factors which can greatly influence such motivation.

In the first place, the value of Primary French must be officially recognised by the Higher Educational Authorities. Otherwise, the teachers feel they are wasting their energy and their pupils' time on something which is

just an educational fad.

The status of French in the schools where the teachers belong is also a contributory factor. Enough information on the desirability of French should be directed not only to the headmasters' intentions but also to that of the teachers' colleagues and the pupils' parents. The trainee should be made to feel that his work receives the approval of the whole school community.

Thirdly, in terms of organisation a training course should not be an added burden to the teachers' lives. It should be organised during school hours and the teachers relieved as much as possible from all primary school duties, e.g. supervision of school dinners, sports. If training has to be only part-time, then morning classes are certainly preferable. However, we would recommend a more intensive form of training. In this connection, residential courses might be considered where materially possible.

Finally, in terms of language training, any motivation that existed prior to training should be maintained and developed by the intrinsic interest raised by the course materials. The materials should strike a balance between the need to prepare all the trainees for a common task while taking into account the varying needs of individual groups and trainees. In connection with the motivation raised by the course itself, we shall stress that good personal relationship between trainer and trainees and between trainees is essential. They should be made to

feel that they are part of a valuable enterprise and encouraged to share their own experience with each other. Anything contributing to this (e.g. group-work, projects, coffee breaks) should be considered as worthwhile even if it is not immediately conducive to language learning.

(ii) Ability

A preliminary condition to successful in-service training is to ensure that the teachers accepted for training stand a reasonable chance of reaching the course target in the language. Accepting teachers who are unlikely to succeed is wasteful in financial terms and also harmful for the morale of the teachers who fail. Therefore, it is suggested that the applicants to a course should be tested prior to being accepted. We are well aware that problems exist in the implementation of such a condition. The first difficulty is the teachers' natural reluctance to being tested. This can be reduced if the teachers are sufficiently motivated. The second problem, a technical one, consists in determining a minimum level of language proficiency below which a teacher should not be accepted for training. We shall examine this difficulty in greater detail in a subsequent chapter (II: 3.3.2).

Our second condition has to do with the necessity of grouping the trainees into homogeneous groups. This offers no technical difficulty if the applicants to a course are pre-tested. However, this implies that educational administrators should follow a particular

procedure: (i) All the teachers who apply for training during a school session could be tested together before the first course starts; (ii) According to the results of the test the teachers should then be allocated to the various courses available; (iii) Only then, should the teachers be given the dates of the course which is considered suitable for them.

Observations suggest that grouping based on the teachers' own assessment of their ability or on their academic qualifications in French is not sufficiently reliable. Further investigation of this question (II: 3.3.1) has supported these observations.

Finally, an assessment of the trainees' achievement in the language at the end of a training course is desirable even if they have been selected on entrance because we believe that training does not necessarily result in ability to teach. If no pre-selection has been carried out, then assessment of the trainees' terminal behaviour becomes even more necessary.

These three conditions - pre-selection, grouping and final assessment - constitute the basis of all schooling at whatever level. However, in connection with PF training their relevance has never been pointed out and it is unlikely that they have ever been put into practice.

1.4.3 Specifications for the design of course materials

The general notion which should guide the design of training materials is one that will strike a balance between the specific requirements of PF teaching and the

varying conditions in which training takes place, i.e. flexibility must be the principle underlying the whole design of course materials in order to enable the teacher-trainer to use it selectively.

The features that have emerged as being essential or important in the design of this type of course materials are outlined here. It is on such basis that our experimental course was developed.

Linguistic aspect

The language content must be precisely circumscribed, therefore it should be based on an analysis of the PF language used in the schools where the trainees teach.

All the structures of the language content that are related to a particular area of grammar should be carefully graded and drills or exercises built up to practise each structure in turn, e.g. in relation to the imperative in French, 7 different structures are found to be relevant to PF teaching:

1 - affirmative form of simple verbs (Cours).
2 - affirmative form of simple verbs followed by an infinitive (Cours chercher de la craie).
3 - affirmative form of reflexive verbs (habille-toi).
4 - affirmative form of reflexive verbs followed by an infinitive (dépêche-toi de t'habiller).
5 - negative form of simple verbs (ne bavardez pas).
6 - negative form of simple verbs followed by an infinitive (N'oublie pas de te laver les mains).
7 - negative form of reflexive verbs (ne t'approche pas de la fenêtre).

Methodological aspect

The materials should offer as many teaching alternatives as possible to suit particular training conditions although care must be taken that the language content remains unaltered. In this connection, the materials should be designed as to allow the omission of drills, exercises or even teaching stages if this is found to be necessary.

Two levels of teaching should be provided in order to develop the two aspects of oral performance that are of relevance to PF training, i.e. oral accuracy and oral fluency, bearing in mind that fluency does not necessarily mean accuracy. Accuracy in reproduction and manipulation of language will be sought during the practice stage and fluency during the exploitation stage.

Provision should be made in the materials for the remedial learners by introducing diagnosis techniques and ways of adapting the materials to their level of oral ability.

Behavioural aspect

Active experience of an oral approach to language teaching should also be provided. In connection with this idea it is thought desirable to use the same type of visual aids as those used in the primary course.

Finally, interest in France, its language and people should be raised and considered as an important feature of full PF training.

CHAPTER 2

THE LANGUAGE OF PRIMARY FRENCH

2.1 General Purpose and Method

2.1.1 Justification

This chapter is concerned with the analytical description of the language specific to PF teaching. We have noted earlier (I: 2.7.2) the dearth of previous studies on this question from which it could be concluded that there is no such thing as a restricted area of language used in the context of PF teaching.

However, we believe that this lack of description is more a result of the technical difficulties encountered in the descriptive process than a lack of matter to be described. It seems evident that the whole idea of involving non-specialist staff in PF teaching rests on the principle that the language requirements are limited and can be acquired rapidly. If the language cannot be circumscribed and reduced to a number of definite patterns and lexical items, then foreign language specialists with a command of the whole language must be used to carry out the instruction.

If the principle of limited requirements seems

theoretically sound, these requirements obviously need to be carefully delimited in linguistic terms. Without establishing beforehand what Primary French consists of, the issue of teacher-training and a number of related questions are bound to be obscured.

The purpose of our investigation is two-fold. In the first place, the language description and its analysis is needed as a basis for writing the course materials. It provides a potential stock of teaching items, both grammatical and lexical, from which the writer can select the language content of the course. It also establishes a range of situation-types in which the language occurs. Secondly, the present investigation is also intended as a basis for defining the minimum standard of proficiency required in PF teaching and devising means to test this proficiency (II: 1.4.2, ii).

2.1.2 Defining the task

In this investigation the language specific to Primary French is viewed as consisting of (a) the subject-matter of the French lesson and (b) the verbal communication between teacher and pupils in the school environment outside the language of curricular subjects. We shall now clarify each of those two aspects.

a) The language of the French lesson can easily be defined and described since it is usual for the instruction given by non-specialist teachers to be linked to the content of a textbook. Therefore, for all practical purposes, the language relevant to the French lesson is

considered as that contained in the textbook used by the teacher. The textbook with which we are concerned in our study is the Nuffield French course 'En Avant' since it is the one used in Edinburgh Corporation schools (I: 3.2.3).

b) While the first aspect of our definition is self-evident the inclusion of the language used outside the French lesson proper needs some justification since it normally occurs in English.

It has often been argued that French teaching jars in the modern context of primary education because, whereas all other activities relate to an integrated curriculum, French has to be taught as a subject. However, the use of French throughout the day as a medium of communication in a number of school situations (such as calling the roll or collecting dinner-tickets) has recently been considered as a way of integrating French into the curriculum and has been successfully tried out. It is this area of language that we describe here.

Naturally, as we have already noted, all the activities that form part of the school day normally occur in the mother tongue. Consequently, for our own purpose, the relevant language had to be translated into French. Under these circumstances, the area of language resulting from translation cannot strictly speaking be referred to as belonging to an actual linguistic register of French.[1] However, it is useful for working purposes to think of this area along the three dimensions currently used in register studies: field, mode and style of discourse.

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[1] Therefore, it is not our intention to set up a language called Primary French in the same sense as there is an International Language of the air. However, it is a methodological necessity to circumscribe the data that forms the basis of the syllabus in the most useful way.

The first dimension, field of discourse, concerns "the area of operation of the language activity" (Halliday, 1964: 90). In our investigation, we have noted that it refers to a number of situations characteristic of primary school life while excluding those specific to the teaching of curricular subjects. As concerns the mode of discourse we are only interested in the spoken medium. Style of discourse, the last dimension used, refers to the relationship between a teacher and young children.

If there is a language of secondary education beyond that which is specific to curricular subjects as suggested by Rosen in an unpublished paper quoted by Barnes (1969: 12), then it is reasonable to believe that there is, similarly, a language of primary education. However, to our knowledge, there has not been any work published on the subject which might have acted as a guide in our own investigation.[1]

2.1.3 Techniques of Data Collection

The identification of the relevant language was carried out by two distinct techniques.

a) The language content of the French lesson, was found in the detailed index of the three primary stages of the Nuffield French course 'En Avant'. This index consists of a vocabulary list as well as a list of the syntactic forms presented in the course. These syntactic

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[1] Barnes (ibid.: 13) who originally intended to compare the language of secondary education with that of primary finally limited his investigation to the secondary school in view of the kind of results he had obtained at secondary level.

forms are not recorded in the index as exemplary sentences or grammatical names, as is current practice in foreign language courses, but are given at a certain level of abstraction, loosely named 'patterns' by the authors (see Appendix A.1). These patterns appear as the crude markings underlying the sentences practised in the lesson units, e.g.:

Je + verb (+ direct object) (Unit 1.19)

Aimer + infinitive (+ object) (Unit 2.14)

The lexical content of the course is not included here. It is presented in alphabetical order in the textbook index and as such constitutes a potential stock of items from which we have occasionally drawn for our own training materials.

b) The language specific to school life in non-teaching situations was collected by the investigator with the kind co-operation of some primary teachers. The investigator visited a number of schools and observed the language activity taking place during and outside the French lesson. The language used was not tape-recorded as it was feared that this might cause some unintentional changes in language, as were noted during Barnes' investigation in secondary schools (ibid.). For the same reason the teachers were not told what the investigator was interested in. Taking notes on the spot was difficult and most of the data was written up from memory after the school visits.

The teachers attending a training course were also involved in data-collection. Each of them was asked to

give a list of the phrases they used most frequently with their pupils when they were not engaged in formal teaching. Since the same situations and the same language kept recurring in all individual lists, it may be assumed that the language sampled in this manner reflected reality fairly closely.

On the other hand, more data was obtained from a group of primary teachers composing a working party which the Language Advisors of the Edinburgh Department had set up with the aim of studying the possibility of integrating French into the primary school. All the teachers on this working party were specially interested in French and most of them had a very good command of the language. They were asked to list the class activities, which according to them could be carried out in French as well as note the language that was used during such activities. Art, music, handicraft, gymnastics were suggested as possible classes to hold in French.

The consistency of the data produced by individual teachers and our own observations lead us to believe that the language material collected in the manner we have described is a fairly representative sample of the area of language concerned. However, it remains a sample and should not be considered as a closed corpus. Further investigation would probably produce additional data especially as concerns the lexis.

2.2 Analysis of the Field of Discourse

2.2.1 Justification

The analysis of the field of discourse, i.e. the areas

of activity in which the language operates, has been carried out on the language materials collected directly in English. Specialised FL teaching aims at transforming the learner's linguistic behaviour in certain professional activities which he is used to carrying out in his own mother tongue. For instance, a PF teacher must be trained to react without any hesitation with 'rangez vos affaires' whereas this normal school situation has, in the past, always called for 'put your things away'. Associating the well-known situation with the new set of linguistic responses being learnt seems an essential part of specialised language teaching. Therefore, the course-writer requires a precise knowledge of the kind of situations in which the relevant language occurs.

The role played by the contexts of situation in specialised courses is believed to be distinctly different from that played in non-specific courses.[1] Writers of general language courses have to rely on their imagination and intuition to contextualize language. In specialised teaching, the contexts of situation are part and parcel of the course content and they are all included in the professional activity under study. Therefore, it is as important to analyse this activity in terms of situations

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[1] The alternative approach to situational contexts in general language courses is (a) to use them as teaching aids to fit the linguistic needs (West, 1960) or (b) to select them as starting points determinant of the selection of language to fill them (Corder, 1960).

as in linguistic terms.

2.2.2 Situational analysis

This analysis was based on actual observation of a number of classes at various times of the day. The language which was collected in English did not require translation at that stage. It was interpreted and organised into nine categories of school activities. These categories are listed below with exponents of the language used in each. The rest of the data is given in Appendix A.2. It will be noted that in all the recorded activities. pupil-participation is very limited. Moreover, the linguistic markers are not specific to any particular activity but cover the whole field of discourse.

I Activities involving movements

a) in the classroom

- Go and wash your hands.
- Who would like to fetch the record-player?

b) outside the classroom

- Get into your line when the bell goes.

c) pupil-initiated sentences

- May I go and get my hanky?

II Activities involving commencement or completion

a) when starting a class

- Get your things out.
- Get ready for needlework.

b) when finishing

- Put your things away.
- Time's up.

c) Pupil-initiated sentences

- I have done it.

III General instructions

a) control of noise

- Settle down quietly!

- Don't whistle!

b) keeping order

- Don't kick!

- Never throw stones!

c) to one pupil in particular

- Turn off the tap!

IV Tidying and cleaning

- Pick up the papers from the floor!

- Have you cleaned the hamster cage today?

V Plants and pets

a) teacher-pupils

- Has the fish been fed today?

- Who is going to take them home for the holiday?

b) pupil-initiated sentences

- May I change the water in the goldfish bowl?

VI Dinners

a) teacher-pupils

- Who is having dinners?

b) pupil-initiated sentences

- I have left my money in the cloakroom.

VII Greetings

- Good morning, children.

VIII Milk distribution

a) teacher-pupils

- Who wants an extra bottle?

b) pupil-initiated sentences

- May we take the crate away?

IX Clothes

- Don't leave money in your coat pockets.
- Whose glove is this?

X Activities involving classroom objects

- Where is your pencil?

2.2.3 Intentional analysis

The situational analysis of the data was finally completed by a study of the various intentions expressed throughout the areas of discourse. Intentional analysis is linked with the dimension of register classification which we referred to earlier (see 2.1.2) as 'style of discourse' in that it concerns the relations among participants.

Relations between participants are of primary importance in this study since, as Halliday (1964: 92) pointed out, they determine the features of the language. In our case, the relations observed are those between teacher and young pupils. The teacher's utterances are almost always directive which, naturally, is in agreement with his professional role. There are no hesitation features in his utterances which are kept short in order not to exceed the children's span of attention. It is quite remarkable

that only a few of the teacher's directive utterances call for verbal responses from the pupils. On the other hand, the pupil-initiated responses are of limited number. This is of extreme importance for our training objectives and lends strength to the opinion that the teacher might well carry out part of his classroom instructions in a FL.

The restricted field of discourse being investigated on the one hand, and the strictly defined teacher-pupil relationship on the other, could not offer much in the way of resources for analysis in terms of the interaction of the participants. This is the reason why we chose to limit our analysis of the material to the intentions of the participants. This organisation of the speech events enabled us to discern a number of features of the language under study.

The framework which was chosen to interpret the material was adapted from Palmer (1923) and consists of 4 main categories. These categories are listed below with exponents of the language used in each. The rest of the data is given in Appendix A.3.

I REQUESTS

a) Asking permission to do something

- Shall I give out the jotters?
- Can I go for a drink?

b) Asking someone to do/not to do something

- Tidy your desks.
- Who wants to come and help me?

c) Asking for something

- Who has the glue?
- I'd like some drawing paper, please!

II PERMISSIONS

a) Giving permission

- If you like.

b) Refusing permission

- Not just now.

III ENQUIRIES

a) Asking for information about people

- Where is John?
- How many are absent to-day?

b) Asking for information about something

- Where is the sellotape?
- Do you need any help?

c) Asking for ownership

- Whose scarf is that?

d) Asking for information about numbers and quantities

- How many of you are having dinners?

IV AGREEMENT AND PRAISES

- What a difference!
- Much better.

2.3 Linguistic Analysis

2.3.1 Purpose and scope

We are concerned here with an analysis of the raw language data in its French version. The utterances collected during our investigation can only be regarded as

the exponents of a whole set of linguistic relations and cannot, obviously, be used as such for language teaching. Therefore, the purpose of this analysis is to reveal the linguistic features of the raw language materials, i.e. the inventory of sentences is reduced to definable terms which constitute the norm for the language variety we are investigating.

Analysis of linguistic data can be carried out at the three levels of language: syntactical, lexical and phonological. We shall only be concerned here with the syntactic markers of the language variety under study.

Analysis of lexical markers has not been carried out here for the main reason that the sample of language obtained seemed too small to be of much general value at the lexical level. Furthermore, the technique of frequency count currently used in lexical analysis does not seem of relevance to our study. We agree with Stannell's suggestion (1967) that 'the frequency count of lexical items reveals nothing of more than trivial interest as regards registers'. Therefore, practically all the lexical items found in the original data are considered as representative of the language variety under study. However, before entering them in the final data (see Appendix A.4) a rapid selection has been carried out on an empirical basis to eliminate those items which seemed to be irrelevant or very unusual. The items that have been retained are presented in alphabetical order (Appendix A.4) together with the French translation of the actual English

utterances in which these lexical items appeared.

The search for phonological markers was, of necessity, impossible since the study was not carried out on the original English utterances but on their translations.

2.3.2 Techniques

a) Selection of procedures

There is relatively little information about the techniques concerning the specification of the syntactic properties of a restricted language.[1] This absence of technical information is reflected in the lack of detailed descriptions of particular registers even in well described languages such as English (Halliday 1964: 90). There does exist a few textbooks devised for the L2 teaching of some restricted languages (e.g. business English, scientific English, the International Language of the Air) but they do not specify their methods of analysis.

Two techniques of analysis have been considered and rejected. Computer analysis, which is sometimes used in literary research, was impossible because of the small size of our sample and its artificial nature resulting from translation. On the other hand, a simple technique as that of subjective observation of the data, supported by "native-speaker's intuition", could not lead to any

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1 Contrasting with this absence of information, the techniques of lexical analysis are well known and have been explicitly used in such works as that carried out by the CREDIF research team (Gougenheim et al, 1956).

degree of precision in the analysis. It was, however, possible to recognise immediately that the data included three types of French sentences: statements (positive and negative), questions and imperatives, with frequent occurrence of the latter in classroom language. Moreover, it was evident that the data did not include any complex sentences in classroom language and was reduced to simple causal and temporal types of relationships in the textbook language. Further specification of the three sentence-types, thus outlined a-priori, could not be obtained without explicit procedures of analysis. Consequently, we adopted in the first stage a system of distributional analysis basically similar to those used by Hornby (1948; 1954) and Fries (1952). This consisted of classifying the different sentence-types of our data by means of a system of slots.

Before proceeding any further, we should make it clear that we are well aware that the use of such analytical procedure may raise some criticism since such a procedure, often termed a 'mechanical procedure', has been strongly condemned by the transformationalists. We believe, however, that this point of view, as expressed in the literature, refers to the analysis of the system of a whole language and was not intended to apply to the description of a register or restricted language.[1] Further-

[1] We are not trying to imply here that the intuitive component has no place in linguistic analysis. Obviously, a description of one's mother tongue can not be carried out along the same mechanical lines as can be applied to an unknown Indian language as has frequently been attempted by American linguists. Indeed, we did not hesitate in the course of our analysis to complete the available data through our own native speaker's knowledge of French.

more, we consider that, at a practical level, rival theories are not mutually exclusive: the role of those engaged in the application of a science is not to adhere dogmatically to any one theory but if necessary to use any combinations of theories that may be helpful in furthering their particular aims.

Roulet (1969) used a procedure very similar to ours in his 'Syntaxe de la Proposition Nucléaire on Français Parlé'. This interesting work, published when the main linguistic analysis of our data had already been carried out, came as a confirmation of our belief that the heuristic method which we used constituted a useful guide, in the first stages of the analysis, and a valuable basis for the development of a more elaborate syntactical description.

b) Preliminary procedure

We shall now return to the actual description of the analytical procedures used after the data had been classified into three different sentence types. The first step in our analysis was to write up the abstract French patterns for those three sentence types in the form of a sequence of slots (see Appendix A.5).

The second step consisted of writing in columns under the corresponding slots enough sentences from the data to ensure that all the syntactic combinations were represented. The rapid selection of examples was carried out by direct observation of the data. The labelling of the slots was left voluntarily imprecise on purpose because our aim in devising this rudimentary model was not to find one

grammatical formula for the structure of all possible statements in French but to obtain a general idea of the kind of syntactic features occurring in our data. The lack of sophistication of our model explains why 4 types of utterances could not be fitted into our classification, viz:-

- Voilà une orange.
- C'est plus haut que la tour Eiffel.
- Je mange parce que j'ai faim.
- Il va à l'épicerie pour acheter du café.

The technique of slot analysis applied to some statement-sentences that appear in language data of the textbook is exemplified in Appendix A.5.

2.3.3 Syntactic markers

By classifying further the various syntactic relations obtained in the preliminary stage of the analysis, we were able to determine 19 subtypes within the 3 main sentence-types. These subtypes represent the syntactic markers of the restricted language under study.

Each marker is represented by a formula or string of symbols[1] that can be replaced by appropriate lexical items. A formula subsumes the surface-structure of all the syntactic combinations that can be found in the data, within a particular subtype.

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[1] See Appendix A.8 for the list of symbols used in all the formulas concerning the linguistic analysis of the data.

I STATEMENTS

Presentatives

1. C'est

$$\text{Ce} + (\text{Neg.}) + \text{ETRE} + (\text{Neg.}) + \begin{pmatrix}\text{NP} + (\text{Prep} + \text{NP}) \\ \text{Adj.}\end{pmatrix}$$

C'est Jean.
C'est le ballon de Jean.
Ce n'est pas une orange.

2. Voilà

$$(\text{PRO}) + \text{Voilà} + \text{NP} + (\text{prep} + \text{NP})$$

Voilà Jean.
Voilà le ballon de Jean.
Le voilà.

3. Il y a

$$\text{Il} + (\text{Neg.}) + \text{Y} + \text{A} + (\text{Neg.}) + \begin{pmatrix}\text{Det} + \text{N} \\ \text{quant} + \text{N} + \text{Loc} \\ \text{Num}\end{pmatrix}$$

Il y a des enfants.
Il y a assez de bonbons.
Il y a trois canards.
Il y a un chapeau sur la table.
Il n'y a pas d'enfants.

Verbal Phrase -

4. with 'ETRE'

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{PRO} \\ \text{NP}\end{pmatrix} + \text{ETRE} + \begin{pmatrix}\emptyset + \text{N} \\ \text{Adj.} \\ \text{Loc} \\ \text{Num} + \text{N}\end{pmatrix}$$

Elle est infirmière.
Il est vert.
Il est là.
Il est huit heures.

5. with no direct object

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{PRO} \\ \text{NP}\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}\text{Vi} \\ \text{Vp}\end{pmatrix} + \text{Loc}$$

Je rentre chez moi.
Il va à l'épicerie.
Le chien se sauve.

6. with direct object

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}Vt\\Aux.PP\end{pmatrix} + NP + (prep.NP)$$

Il mange un bonbon.
Il demande quelquechose à l'agent.
Il a acheté une glace.
Je suis sorti à 10h.

7. with 'Modal'

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + Modal + PRO + INF. + \begin{pmatrix}NP\\\emptyset\\Loc\end{pmatrix}$$

Il va manger.
Il doit écrire.
Il vient de partir à l'école.
Il aime mieux rester à la maison.

8. Special uses of 'Avoir'

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + AVOIR + \begin{pmatrix}Adj.\\Num.\ N\\N\end{pmatrix}$$

J'ai froid.
J'ai 9 ans.
J'ai faim.

9. Pronominals

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + (Modal) + PRO + \begin{pmatrix}Aux\ PP\\V\\INF\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}(Det) + (N)\\(\\((Num)\end{pmatrix}$$

J'en voudrais.
J'en voudrais un.
J'en voudrais un pot.
Je vais m'habiller.
Je l'ai.

10. Negative statements

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + Neg. + \begin{pmatrix}V\\Aux\end{pmatrix} + Neg. + \begin{pmatrix}\emptyset\\PP\end{pmatrix} + (NP)$$

Il n'aime pas le calcul.
Georges n'a pas coupé les tulipes.

11. Negative statements with pronouns

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + Neg + PRO + \begin{pmatrix}V\\Aux\end{pmatrix} + Neg + \begin{pmatrix}\emptyset\\PP\end{pmatrix}$$

6. with direct object

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}Vt\\Aux.PP\end{pmatrix} + NP + (prep.NP)$$

Il mange un bonbon.
Il demande quelquechose à l'agent.
Il a acheté une glace.
Je suis sorti à 10h.

7. with 'Modal'

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + Modal + PRO + INF. + \begin{pmatrix}NP\\\emptyset\\Loc\end{pmatrix}$$

Il va manger.
Il doit écrire.
Il vient de partir à l'école.
Il aime mieux rester à la maison.

8. Special uses of 'Avoir'

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + AVOIR + \begin{pmatrix}Adj.\\Num.\ N\\N\end{pmatrix}$$

J'ai froid.
J'ai 9 ans.
J'ai faim.

9. Pronominals

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + (Modal) + PRO + \begin{pmatrix}Aux\ PP\\V\\INF\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}(Det) + (N)\\(\\((Num)\end{pmatrix}$$

J'en voudrais.
J'en voudrais un.
J'en voudrais un pot.
Je vais m'habiller.
Je l'ai.

10. Negative statements

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + Neg. + \begin{pmatrix}V\\Aux\end{pmatrix} + Neg. + \begin{pmatrix}\emptyset\\PP\end{pmatrix} + (NP)$$

Il n'aime pas le calcul.
Georges n'a pas coupé les tulipes.

11. Negative statements with pronouns

$$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix} + Neg + PRO + \begin{pmatrix}V\\Aux\end{pmatrix} + Neg + \begin{pmatrix}\emptyset\\PP\end{pmatrix}$$

Elles n'en ont pas.
Il ne s'habille pas.
Je ne le trouve pas.
Il ne les a pas coupées.

12. Adverbial relationships

$$NP + V + (NP) + \begin{matrix} \text{parce que} + NP + V + X \\ \text{pour} \quad + INF + X \end{matrix}$$

Il court parce qu'il est en retard.
Il prend un couteau pour couper du pain.

13. Exclamatory

Comme + S

Comme il fait froid!
Comme il est petit!

II QUESTIONS

1. With 'est ce que'

(Qu.) + ESK + S

Est ce que c'est une orange?
Pourquoi est ce que tu manges mes gâteaux?
Que est ce qui veut aller chercher de l'eau?

2. On the subject

Qui + (Neg) + V + (Neg) + (Prep.) + NP

Qui a la colle?
Qui vient avec moi?
Qui n'a pas de pinceaux?

3. With inversion

$$\begin{matrix} (Qu. \\ (Qu.N \end{matrix} + (PRO) + V + NP + (NP)$$

A qui est le verger?
Où va-t-il?
Combien de pommes y a-t-il?
A quelle heure va-t-il à l'école?

4. By intonation

S + rising tone

C'est une orange?
Il n'est pas dans la rue?

III IMPERATIVES

1. Positive orders

$$V \begin{cases} (Adv) + (NP) + (à.NP) \\ (PRO) + (Adv) + \begin{cases} à.NP \\ INF \end{cases} \\ + (PRO) + (Adv) \end{cases}$$

Répétez.
Viens ici.
Regardez moi.
Asseyez vous vite.
Donne le vite à ton voisin.
Donne lui ton crayon.
Arrêtez de jouer.
Dépêchez vous de sortir.

2. Negative orders

Neg + (PRO) + V + Neg + (INF) + (NP)

Ne siffle pas.
Ne te lève pas.
Ne lui donne pas de coups de pied.
N'oubliez pas de fermer la fenêtre.

2.4 A pedagogical grammar of the relevant data

2.4.1 Partial inadequacy of surface-structure representation

Whereas the task of the descriptive linguist ends with the definition of the syntactic markers of the restricted language under study, this is not so with the pedagogical linguist. We stated at the beginning of this chapter that the immediate purpose of our linguistic analysis was to provide the course-writer with a working instrument. To be useful, we believe that such an instrument should specify the relations holding between the various elements of the sentence-types of the language analysed as well as the possible combinations of these elements, i.e. we require a set of grammatical rules that will permit the construction

of new sentences conforming to the grammatical characteristics of the language. This is obviously of primary importance in foreign language teaching.

However, most of the formulas arrived at in our syntactic description cannot fulfil the function of grammatical rules in the manner we have just stated because these formulas are limited to the description of the surface-structure of the sentences of the data and have thus no generative quality as can be seen in the following example: The same string of symbols 'NP+PRO+V' underlies two different types of sentences like

(i) il en a

(ii) il l'a

in which 'en' and 'l' are mutually exclusive. In language learning, this means that the string of symbols gives neither the learner nor the course-writer any indication of when to use one rather than the other. It is only by introducing a third dimension into our description that these two sentences can be distinguished. This third dimension will relate the surface-structure of these two sentences to two different deep-structures, e.g. the deep structure of (i) is NP + V + Indef. + N

underlying sentences like:

il a des oranges.

The deep-structure of (ii) is NP + V + Definite + N

underlying sentences like:

il a l'argent

il a le temps

il a la voiture.

2.4.2 Inadequacy of existing grammar books

Traditional descriptions

It was found that, for several reasons, the grammar textbooks in current use could not provide adequate rules to compensate for the inadequacy of our syntactic description. First of all, most traditional grammar books are written for native-speakers and they take for granted a number of phrase-structure rules. For instance, Grévisse (1964) in his 1,200 page book does not mention the fact that, in French, cardinal adjectives precede ordinals. 'La Grammaire Française de Larousse' (1964), although more structurally orientated, overlooks this point as well as the anteposition of all numerals in French. Mauger (1968) in a grammar for foreigners, does not even mention numerals.

Whenever the order of words is considered at all, it often takes the form of a lengthy series of rules, e.g. Grévisse needed nine different rules to state the place of 'EN' in French sentences.

Moreover, these grammars lack the generative power we consider as essential since they are almost entirely concerned with surface structures. Here again, we shall quote Grévisse (ibid.: 435) and mention his characteristic description of the 'EN' pronoun: "EN est un pronom personnel relatif quand il correspond à un nom construit avec la préposition DE; il exprime alors les principaux rapports marqués par cette préposition (possession, provenance, cause, etc.); il peut etre en rapport avec une expression quantitative. .... (Remarque: Les

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expressions quantitatives un, deux, quelques-uns, aucun, beaucoup, certains, plusieurs, etc. ... employées comme sujets réels avec les formes impersonnelles, comme attributs ou comme objets directs, s'appuient sur le pronom "EN" qui précède: e.g. "Et s'il n'en reste qu'un je serai celui-là" (Hugo). Whitmarsh (1952: 48) dealing with the same grammatical item is satisfied with writing that "this little word is in constant use in French and has many uses apart from its common meaning 'some' or 'any'. One should bear in mind that EN always stands for de + something, e.g. il sortit de la salle, il en sortit. (Cours Supérieur, Longmans).

We hold that such descriptions cannot be of any help to any foreigner who wants to construct a grammatical sentence or to a course-writer even if he is a native-speaker.

Finally, traditional grammar books emphasise three aspects of language, e.g. morphology, spelling and meaning, that are of no direct relevance for writing a course in spoken French. A further obstacle to their usefulness is the grammatical terminology that they use heavily.

New grammatical descriptions

The descriptions of French carried out along the lines of modern linguistics were also found to be unsuitable for our purpose although for different reasons.

The existing descriptions only give a partial account of the language system. Most of them concern themselves

with the verb and emphasize its morpho-phonology, e.g. Gross (1968); Shane (1968); Dubois (1967). Even the verb studies are not complete, for instance Dubois does not include question forms in his account of the French verb.

The partial accounts that are available do not often cover the points that are of particular relevance to the language data under study. We could find no rules, for instance, that would formalize the use of "c'est" as against "il est".

Some of the grammatical points that were found to be of relevance were not sufficiently explicit and lacked a comprehensive description, e.g. Dubois' treatment of "EN" is reduced to the following statement (ibid.: 139): "Ce n'est pas la fonction sémantique qui détermine l'emploi de EN mais la correspondance avec le syntagme nominal précédé de la préposition DE: J'aime les cerises/J'en mange/Je mange des cerises".

The practical value of existing modern grammars is still further reduced by the fact that they are based on different grammatical theories. Dubois and Tesnieres use a structural model, Gross and Shane use generative models. All this contributes to the difficulty of using several grammar books concurrently.

Moreover, when two or more authors use the same theoretical model, they rarely use the same system of formalization. For instance, Shane states the rules in words rather in the more concise notation characteristic of most generative studies. Gross gives a full and

complex account of his own system of notation. These are all elements that contributed to the difficulty we encountered in using these grammar books comparatively.

There is strong evidence that "at the grammatical level the writer of a teaching grammar is almost entirely without a body of systematic descriptive data" (Quirk, 1957).[1] Although we consulted a number of these grammars we found that they could not serve our aim without first reducing their tangle of information to usable form. However time-consuming this may be, it is our contention that, at course writing level, a grammar specially designed to fit one's pedagogical requirements is a necessity.

2.4.3 Characteristics of a pedagogical grammar

Our primary concern, as a pedagogical linguist, was to carry out an eclectic selection of grammatical models, to clarify existing rules and develop new ones for our specific purpose. We considered that the grammar we were trying to write should present a number of characteristics.

(i) The grammar should be explicit and concise so that the course-writer can comprehend what it contains easily. This is why we chose a kind of shorthand notation which we adapted from transformational grammars.

(ii) The grammar should state for each syntactic marker the number and form of the combinations present in the data. This is clearly necessary to decide upon the exact content and form of the course exercises. We have, for instance, determined 5 different occurrences of the pronoun EN in the available data:

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[1] Quoted by Widdowson, in Dakin et al. (1968: 132).

1)	NP + EN + V	Il en a
2)	NP + EN + V + Indef.	Il en a un
3)	NP + EN + V + Quant.	Il en a beaucoup
4)	NP + EN + V + Num	Il en a deux
5)	NP + Neg + EN + V + Neg	Il n'en a pas

(iii) The grammar should specify the relationships between surface-structures and deep-structures so as to provide the basis for transformation exercises:

e.g. Negation of the imperative

V+PRO1 + PRO2 ⟶ Neg + PRO2 + PRO1 + V + Neg

donne-le moi ⟶ ne me le donne pas

(iv) The grammar should also state, to a certain extent at least, the limitations of the partial data described as its blind use might lead to ungrammaticality by over-generalization. For instance, NP can, in most cases, be replaced by PRO when a subject

$\begin{pmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{pmatrix}$ + V e.g. $\begin{pmatrix}\text{Jean chante}\\\text{Il chante}\end{pmatrix}$

However, the rule for questionning by inversion is different according to whether the subject is a PRO or NP:

we have	V + PRO	chante-t-il?
but we cannot have	V + NP	chante Jean?

Although this last structure does not occur in the data the course-writer should, somehow, make it apparent in his course.

(v) The pedagogical linguist should draw, as much as possible, on his teaching experience of the language, to identify from among the markers those that may be confused by learners and he should offer some rules that may help

to keep their syntax separate. This is sometimes difficult as errors due to confusion of two different forms are often caused by an anomaly or some sort of difficulty in the language itself.[1]

(vi) A pedagogical grammar should be put in such a form as to reveal easily the differences between the syntactic markers of the target language and their equivalent in the source language. e.g. A system of notation similar to the one used by Thomas (1965) in his pedagogical grammar of English enabled us to identify a structural difference regarding numeral adjectives:

French: Postdet. $\longrightarrow$ (Card) (Ord)
as in 'les deux premiers ...'

English: Postdet. $\longrightarrow$ (Ord) (Card)
as in 'the first two ...'

(vii) Finally, it should be made clear that a pedagogical grammar is a working instrument and that, as such, it does not have to adhere to one grammatical model. In our case, the criterion for choice of a model is the greater or lesser simplicity with which the model conceives the rule in terms of teaching efficiency. This is in complete contrast with the aims of theoretical grammarians who justify a grammar by showing that it is the simplest theory capable of explaining all the facts. Consequently, although we have adopted a three-dimensional interpretation

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[1] In this connexion, we shall mention the contrast 'il est/ c'est' which even advanced learners find difficult to use. It is worth noting that native speakers as well may encounter difficulties in using these forms and none of the grammars we have consulted provides a satisfactory description of the contrast.

for part of the data, which is based on a simplified transformational model, we have not adhered to this model when we could not see any pedagogical advantage in doing so. For instance, introducing a transformational component in such sentences as 'Voilà les enfants' or 'Les voilà' only complicates the issue which does not usually offer much difficulty in teaching.[1]

Such sentence-types as questions, imperatives and pronominals have been treated in a transformational perspective because it seemed easier in those cases to explain the rearrangement of the elements of the sentence by referring to the base. However, for the same reason of pedagogical usefulness, we have not aimed at achieving a maximum coverage of linguistic structures with a minimum number of rules. For instance, whereas Roulet (1969: 141) explains all imperative sentences in French by 2 transformational rules, we found that there was no advantage for us in such an elliptical interpretation and 5 rules were needed to cover the sentences of the data.

In conclusion, it is believed that such a grammar can provide the course-writer with a directly usable instrument since by specifying all the language requirements, it maps out the form and content of the course.

2.4.4 Grammar of the data (1): the transformational component

The structure of 9 syntactic markers (see 2.4.3) has been accepted as sufficiently explanatory for our purpose

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[1] Roulet (1969: 137) introduces a special T-rule for this type of sentence, after applying an imperative T-rule first.

not to require further analysis.[1] These are:

(i) Presentatives

no. 1 C'est ... (c'est un ballon)

no. 2 Voilà ... (Voilà le ballon)

no. 3 Il y a ... (Il y a des enfants)

(ii) Verbal phrases

no. 1 With 'ETRE' ... (il est facteur)

no. 2 No direct object ... (Il va à l'épicerie)

no. 3 With direct object ... (Il mange un bonbon)

no. 4 Special uses of avoir ... (Il a froid)

no. 5 Modals ... (Il doit s'arrêter)

no. 9 Adverbial relationships ... (pour couper le pain)

The structure of 10 other syntactic markers has been related to their deep-structure. The transformational component consists of 20 rules. These rules include 5 groups of transformations: pronominals (3), negatives (2), exclamations (1), imperatives (6) and interrogatives (8).

In order to facilitate a general comprehension of the T-rules, we only present here the surface-structure derived from the base component together with some relevant examples for each of them. The complete analysis is presented in Appendix A.6.

Pronominal transformations

T1 T-LE/LUI

$$NP + (Modal) + \begin{matrix}(PRO1 \\ ((PRO1) + PRO2\end{matrix} + V$$

---

[1] Some of these markers belong to the base component and, in any case, could not be analysed further.

Je les essuie

Il lui donne

T2 T-ME/LE

NP + (Modal) + (PRO2) + PRO1 + V

Il (me) le donne

Je (vous) les donne

T3 T-EN positive

$$NP + (Modal) + EN + V + \begin{pmatrix} \emptyset \\ Part. \\ Quant. \\ Un. \\ Un. + NP + prep + (adj) \end{pmatrix} + (adj)$$

Il y en a

Il y en a un

Il y en a un pot

Il y en a beaucoup

Je voudrais en prendre un

Negative transformations

T4 T-Pronominal negative

$$NP + Neg + PRO + V + Neg \begin{pmatrix} \emptyset \\ Quant \end{pmatrix}$$

Je n'en ai pas

Je n'en veux pas beaucoup

Il ne la regarde pas

T5 T-Negative

$$NP + Neg + \begin{pmatrix} V \\ Aux \\ Modal \end{pmatrix} + Neg + \begin{pmatrix} \emptyset \\ P.P. \\ Inf \end{pmatrix} + (NP)$$

Il n'aime pas les oranges

Georges n'a pas coupé de tulipes

Il ne veut pas venir

Exclamatory transformation

T6 T-Exclamatory

Comme + Sentence

Comme il est petit

Comme il a froid

Imperative transformations

T7 T-Do it

$$V + (Adv) + \left\{\begin{matrix}(Inf)\\(NP_1)\end{matrix}\right\} + (prep.NP_2)$$

Prête vite ton crayon à Georges

Arrêtez de jouer

Viens ici

T8 T-Do it (pronominal)

$$V + PRO_1 + \left\{\begin{matrix}(PRO_2)\\(Prep.NP_2)\end{matrix}\right.$$

Prends-en

Donne-le à Pierre

Donne-le lui

T9 T-Do it (animate pronominal only)

$$V + PRO_2 + (NP_1)$$

Regarde-moi

Apporte-moi ton cahier

Prête lui ton crayon

T10 T-Do it (reflexive)

$$V + PRO_r$$

Levez-vous

Habille-toi

T11 T-Don't do it

$$\text{Neg} + \text{V} + \text{Neg} + \begin{cases} (\text{NP}) \\ \\ (\text{prep-Inf}) \end{cases} + (\text{NP})$$

Ne siffle pas

Ne prends pas cette boite

N'oublie pas de fermer la fenêtre

T12 T-Don't do it (one pronominal)

$$\text{Neg} + \text{PRO} + \begin{cases} \text{V}_{\text{r}} \\ \text{V}_{\text{t}} \end{cases} + \text{Neg} + (\text{quant})$$

Ne te lève pas

Ne lui donne pas

N'en prends pas beaucoup

Ne le regarde pas

Interrogative transformations

T13 T-[ESK] yes/no

[ESK] + S

Est-ce que c'est une orange?

Est-ce que tu aimes aller au cinema?

T14 T-[ESK] (subject)

QUI + [ESK] + QUI + V + X

Qui est-ce qui va chercher de la craie?

Qui est-ce qui vend du pain?

T15 T-[ESK] (object)

Qu-(N) + [ESK] + que + NP + V + X

Qu'est-ce que tu bois?

Combien d'éléphants est-ce qu'il y a?

T16 T-yes/no questions with inversion

$$(NP) + \begin{pmatrix} V \\ Aux \\ (Modal) \end{pmatrix} + PRO + \begin{pmatrix} \emptyset \\ P.P. \\ ((PRO)\ Inf) \end{pmatrix} + X$$

(Jean), a-t-il ma règle?

As-tu les mains propres?

Veux-tu m'aider?

T17 T-question on subject

$$QUI + V + (NP_2)$$

Qui a la colle?

T18 T-question with inversion (object)

$$(prep) + qu- + \begin{pmatrix} Aux \\ V \\ (Modal) \end{pmatrix} + PRO + \begin{pmatrix} PP \\ \emptyset \\ (Inf) \end{pmatrix} + X \quad [1]$$

$$(prep) + qu-(N) + V + PRO$$

Comment t'appelles-tu?

Où est-il?

A qui est ce pinceau?

Combien de pommes y a-t-il?

T19 T-yes/no question with intonation

Int. + Sentence

Tu l'as vu?

Tu veux distribuer les pinceaux?

T20 T-question with intonation

Int + NP + V + qu-

Il est où?

Il y en a combien?

Il regarde quoi?

---

[1] In the case of an intransitive verb (courir, habiter ..) and when qu- = où, quand, PRO can be replaced by NP, e.g. Où habite la maitresse? Où est le papier collant? However, in spoken French this form tends to be replaced by T-ESK (object) - or T-qu- intonation, e.g. ou est-ce qu'elle habite? elle habite où?

2.4.5 Grammar of the data (2): word-class analysis

In the course of the transformational analysis of the data, it appeared that the word-class which determines nominals in French required further elaboration if it was to be of practical value for the course-designer.

A set of 7 phrase-structure rules (PS rules) was established, the details of which are given in Appendix A.9. Here are some exponential derivations of these PS rules.

- Tous les deux jours (PS 3)
- N'importe lequel des deux (PS 3)
- Les deux premiers enfants (PS 6)
- Deux enfants de plus (PS 6)
- Trop d'enfants (PS 7)

It should be stressed that it is at the PS level that the main differences occur between French and English, consequently, it is an area of particular difficulty for the learners.

One morpho-phonological rule of neutralisation of the indefinite article[1] was also specified (see Appendix A.7) which underlies such sentences as

- Il n'a pas de chien.
- Combien d'élèves y a-t-il?
- Il y a beaucoup d'oranges.

Finally, the repetition of the group DET + N in

---

1 The indefinite article is symbolised by $Indef_1$ = un, une, du, de la, des in our analysis.

enumerations was noted[1], e.g.: il faut de la colle, des punaises, du papier a dessin, de la peinture et un pinceau.

---

[1] The rule of recursion is more simply dealt with in traditional terms when language teaching is considered. Although Chomsky (1965: 175) regards this type of rule as a transformational rule of the usual kind, its formalization is too complicated for a pedagogical grammar.

CHAPTER 3

TESTING THE TRAINEES

3.1 Aims

3.1.1 Selection

It has been suggested (II: 1.4.2) that one of the conditions of in-service training is that the teachers who are accepted on a course should stand a reasonable chance of reaching the course target in the language. It is wasteful to train all the applicants, only to discover at the end of a course that a number of them are still not sufficiently proficient in French to teach it. Therefore, our first aim in testing is to select the applicants to a course before accepting them.

3.1.2 Classification

Grouping

Testing is also intended to classify the trainees into homogeneous groups before training starts. This has been found necessary because of the wide range of ability in French displayed by the trainees. Since, as we have already pointed out, testing presented some practical difficulties, we have been led to investigate the value of

academic qualifications in French as an alternative instrument of assessment.

Final assessment

Testing is also used to assess the trainees after a course. This final assessment helps to classify the trainees with a view to their participation in PF teaching.

3.1.3 Diagnostic

Testing also provides a profile of the individual trainees in qualitative terms which is particularly relevant to remedial teaching (Ingram, 1968: 75).

3.1.4 Assessment of the course

Our final aim in testing the trainees' terminal behaviour is to obtain a feedback on the value of the course in teaching what it intended to teach; the test results being used for revising the experimental materials.

3.2 Testing Materials

3.2.1 The MLA-co-operative FL test

1. Description

The Listening Comprehension test that was used with various groups of teachers is part of the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Test for Teachers and Advanced Students produced in 1965 by the Educational Testing Service (Princeton, N.J.) and the Modern Language Association of America. "In the listening test, the students hear the instructions and the content of the test questions from the playback of a tape-recording. The questions are based upon single utterances or short conversation between speakers. To reply, the student makes use of multiple-

choice answers printed in his test-booklet" (MLA 1965).

2. Uses

At the outset of our experiment the MLA test was used as a proficiency test to measure the teachers' entry behaviour, for classification purposes. Although our primary concern was to assess the teachers' speaking ability we were forced for technical reasons to use a listening test instead of a test of oral expression.

Thereafter, the MLA test was used in concurrent validation of the specific test of oral expression that we were developing.

3. Inadequacies

As research needs became more refined, more information about the teachers was required than could be yielded by the MLA test. Because the test selection of language is based on a universe of content which is not specific, the MLA test could not be used as an achievement test, the aim of which is "to assess what has been learnt of a known syllabus". (Davies, 1967: 4).

For the same reason, non-specificity of language, the MLA test could not be used to diagnose what the teachers knew of the relevant language behaviour.

It was therefore found desirable to design a test which would fulfil our aims more adequately.

3.2.2 The pilot version of the Primary French test [1]

1. The problem

A test was required that could yield qualitative and quantitative information on the teachers' oral ability in

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[1] Thereafter this test will be referred to as PF test.

the language area relevant to PF teaching. In order to simplify matters, a single test was devised that could be used as a proficiency test, an achievement test, a diagnostic test and a predictive test.

Oral production presents the most difficult problem in testing. However, since speaking ability was our main concern it was decided that oral production could not be assessed by any other mode of testing. The construction of the test was made easier by the fact that language activity at primary school level does not appear to require the generalized use of highly complex skills as in normal communication[1] and calls on a very restricted area of language (II: 1.3.3). Thus, the speech situations selected in the oral test are not alien to classroom language activity although they are highly artificial in terms of normal communication.

2. Test construction

Language content

The language content of the test was closely related to the syllabus content so that it could be used as an achievement and diagnostic test. The syllabus content itself was considered as valid since it was based on our analysis of PF (II: 2.3).

The language we tested was limited to 6 main areas of grammar, i.e.,

i) presentatives,

ii) simple verbal phrases of the type

---

1 "Communication means that information is passed from one place to another" (G.A. Miller, 1951: 6). Furthermore, the amount of information can be defined as the logarithm of the number of alternatives (Shannon, 1948). We shall argue that the amount of information passed along in PF learning is minimal because the number of alternatives is either reduced or altogether non-existent, e.g. language drills cannot be considered as communication.

$$\begin{Bmatrix}NP\\PRO\end{Bmatrix} + (neg)+(modal)+(PRO)+V+(neg) + \begin{Bmatrix}(Adv)\\(det + N) + (prep+NP)\\(prep) + INF\end{Bmatrix}^{1}$$

iii) question forms,

iv) imperatives,

v) determiners of the type

$$(Preart.) + \begin{Bmatrix}art\\dem\\gen\\num\end{Bmatrix} + N$$

vi) pronominal sentences of the type

NP + (neg) + EN + V + (neg) + (det.)

The difficulty usually encountered in sampling test items from a large area of language was thus considerably reduced in our case and it was possible to include items from each of the areas mentioned above.

Testing the lexis was not attempted, and care was taken in item-writing to use only those lexical words that even a near-beginner in the language would know.

The test version that was piloted included a subtest of phonemic contrasts and a passage for reading. These two subtests were discarded in the final version. The first one was found not to discriminate enough and the second could not be objectively scored.

Description

The pilot version of the PF test was tried out in March 1968, at the end of the first training course. It consisted of 7 series of items each of which was centred round a grammatical area of language and included a total of 45 grammatical items.

The test was group-administered to 22 teachers in the

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[1] See Appendix A8 for key to the symbols used.

language laboratory. The test instructions were given in English. The teachers heard the questions on a tape and recorded their responses. The grammatical form in which the questions were to be answered was not freely chosen by the respondants but specifically mapped out in the test booklets. For instance, when asked the question 'Est-ce qu'ils ont un panier?' not only did the teachers have to refer to a drawing for their answer but they were also instructed to use the pronoun 'en'. Although this technique would be unacceptable as a means of testing normal oral production, it is believed that it is not entirely alien to classroom procedure where speech acts are more concerned with grammatical form than with meaning, i.e. the teacher's question has to be shaped in such a way as to elicit one particular pattern in his pupils' response.

Item-analysis

Item analysis of the pilot test (see Appendix B2) was carried out with the method described by Ingram (1968) in which the scores of the upper third group are compared with those of the lower third.

This analysis contributed to the revision of the test items. Some items were discarded either because they did not discriminate sufficiently or because they were too easy as is shown in the following table:

Table 1 Item analysis of unsatisfactory test items

No. of the items discarded	Facility index	Discrimination
1.2	11%	.22
1.3	83%	.33
3.3	88%	0
3.7	50%	- .11
5.5	27%	.33
5.8	38%	.33
5.9	11%	.22
6.5	83%	.33
7.6	27%	.33

Four other items were discarded because their grammatical structure had already been tested by other items (4.3 and 5.7) or because it was found more economical to include them in another subtest. (2.1 and 2.2). Within each subtest many items were reordered to place the easiest one at the beginning in order to give the teachers confidence and make sure they had understood what was expected of them.

The item analysis revealed that 5 out of 8 items of subtest 3 did not discriminate at all or gave a negative discrimination index. This, as is explained earlier in this work (II: 1.2.2), was found to be due to differences in the teaching of the two groups and not to a structural weakness of the items.

Concurrent validity

The pilot test scores were correlated with the MLA test score taken as a criterion. The correlation coefficient calculated by the rank order technique was found to be 0.82 (see Appendix B4). This satisfactory coefficient indicated that the test was measuring what we intended it to measure and that the general technique adopted for testing oral expression in the pilot version could be retained provided some items were revised as shown by the item analysis.

3.2.3 The final version of the Primary French test

1. Description

Scoring the pilot version proved to be very time-consuming since each tape lasted 12 minutes; this is the main reason why the number of items in the revised version of the test was reduced from 45 to 36 and the test divided into 6 parts (see Appendix B3).

Table 2 Structure of the final version of the PF test

Test section	No. of items	Language tested
1	4	Use of 'en'
2	6	Contrast 'c'est/il est'
3	5	Imperatives
4	6	Negation - determiner
5	10	Question form
6	5	Presentative

The teachers' responses were elicited by questions and pictures in parts 1 and 6. In part 3 the responses were

elicited by English utterances written in the test booklets. In all other cases, the responses were elicited by recorded questions only.

2. Administration

Like its pilot version, the test was group-administered in the language laboratory where the testees recorded their answers. The test duration was 8 minutes.

The test was given twice with an interval of six weeks i.e. at the beginning and end of each training course.

3. Population sample

The test analysis was carried out on two groups of teachers (N = 34). The first group (N = 17) was of poor to average ability in French. It included three teachers who had studied French at university level, seven had a Higher Leaving Certificate in French, five had an O-level qualification and two had no qualification in French at all. The second group (N = 17) was of poor to good ability. It included five teachers with university level French, nine with a Higher Leaving Certificate, one with an O-level, one qualified under article 39 (I: 3.2.2) and one immigrant teacher who had studied French for two years by the CREDIF method.

4. Reliability

Two procedures were used for computing the reliability coefficient of the test.

First of all, the test-retest method was used in which the two sets of scores obtained successively from the same group are correlated. The rank-difference correlation

coefficient was found to be 0.72 indicating that the test scores are reasonably stable and consistent (see Appendix B4). The criticisms that have sometimes been put forward about the test-retest method (Garrett, 1967) however, led us to use a second method as well, to measure the reliability of the test.

The second method used is that of 'rational equivalence'. The test on its first administration gave a reliability coefficient of 0.82 and a very similar coefficient of 0.83 (Kuder-Richardson formula) on its second administration (see Appendix B4). This coefficient was found to be satisfactory for our purpose. However, bearing in mind that the reliability coefficient is affected by the variability of the group (Garrett, 1967: 351) a slightly lower coefficient could be expected if the test was administered to a group of relatively narrower range than ours, (SD = 5.32 for the first administration and 6.56 for the second).

5. Validity

The concurrent validity of the test was measured as for the pilot test by taking the MLA listening test as an independent criterion. We used for that purpose the rank-difference method, which is reported as giving 'as adequate a result as other methods whenever N is small' (ibid.). The validity coefficient for the first administration of the test proved to be 0.80. This coefficient is slightly lower than that obtained on the pilot version (0.82) but this was to be expected since the final test was nine items shorter than the pilot test.

The scores obtained from the second administration of the test were also correlated with the original MLA scores and although teaching had intervened in the six-week interval, the rank correlation remained at a high level, viz. 0.71 (see Appendix B4).

3.3 Data Analysis

The data analysed in this section is presented in two parts according to whether testing was carried out before or after training.

3.3.1 Testing before training

Background information

By administering the MLA listening test to 8 successive training groups, 132 scores were obtained. Bearing in mind that the 132 trainees tested represented approximately 32% of the whole population of in-service teachers involved in PF in 1967, these results give an indication of the range of ability in oral French displayed by the in-service staff as a whole.

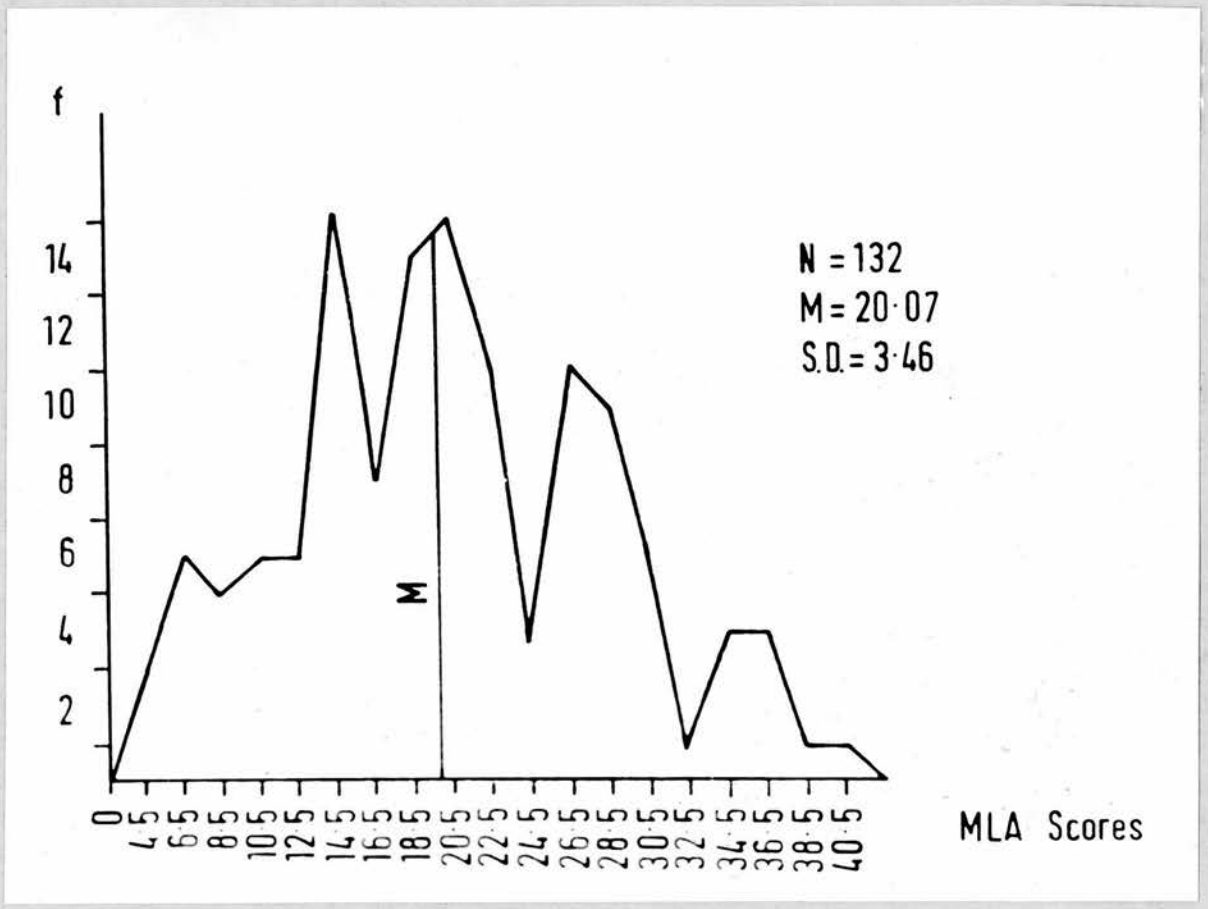
The statistics of this sample are shown in Fig. 1.

Grouping

We have already noted the necessity to form homogeneous groups for training purposes (I: 1.4.2). In this sub-section we present a comparison of the grouping obtained on the basis of 1) the teachers' self-selection, 2) objective testing and 3) their academic qualifications in French.

Fig. 1 Frequency distribution of the scores obtained by PF trainees on the MLA listening test

(N = 132)



1) Teachers' self selection of training groups

During the 1968-69 session, the Edinburgh Education Department organised 4 courses at 3 different levels in French, viz. beginners, intermediate and advanced. The

70 teachers who attended those courses chose the level which they thought was suitable for them on a self-evaluating basis.

The results on the MLA listening test indicate that the average level of ability in each group corresponded to the official label given to the course. However, in terms of teaching one is not so much interested in the measure of central tendency of a group as in the measure of dispersion, since too high a scatter of abilities in a language class leads to difficulty of teaching and lack of efficiency. Therefore, two indices of variability were calculated for each group, viz., the range and the standard deviation. These results showed the high dispersion of the scores; (Table 3).

Table 3 Non-homogeneous grouping resulting from teachers' self-selection

Range of MLA scores within each group	Official level of the courses	N (71)	Mean	SD	Range
14 to 40	Advanced	16	29.2	6.39	26
9 to 29	Intermediate (2)	14	20	5.8	20
4 to 39	Intermediate (1)	20	21.35	6.93	36
5 to 29	Beginners	21	16.6	5.87	24

The results point to the wide range of abilities within

each group. There was also considerable overlap of the scores from group to group (Fig. 2). This means that many of the scores obtained were not specific to one particular group, e.g. some of those teachers who classified themselves as beginners could have been in an intermediate or even advanced group. It was therefore concluded that self-selection was not a reliable method of grouping.

2) Objective grouping

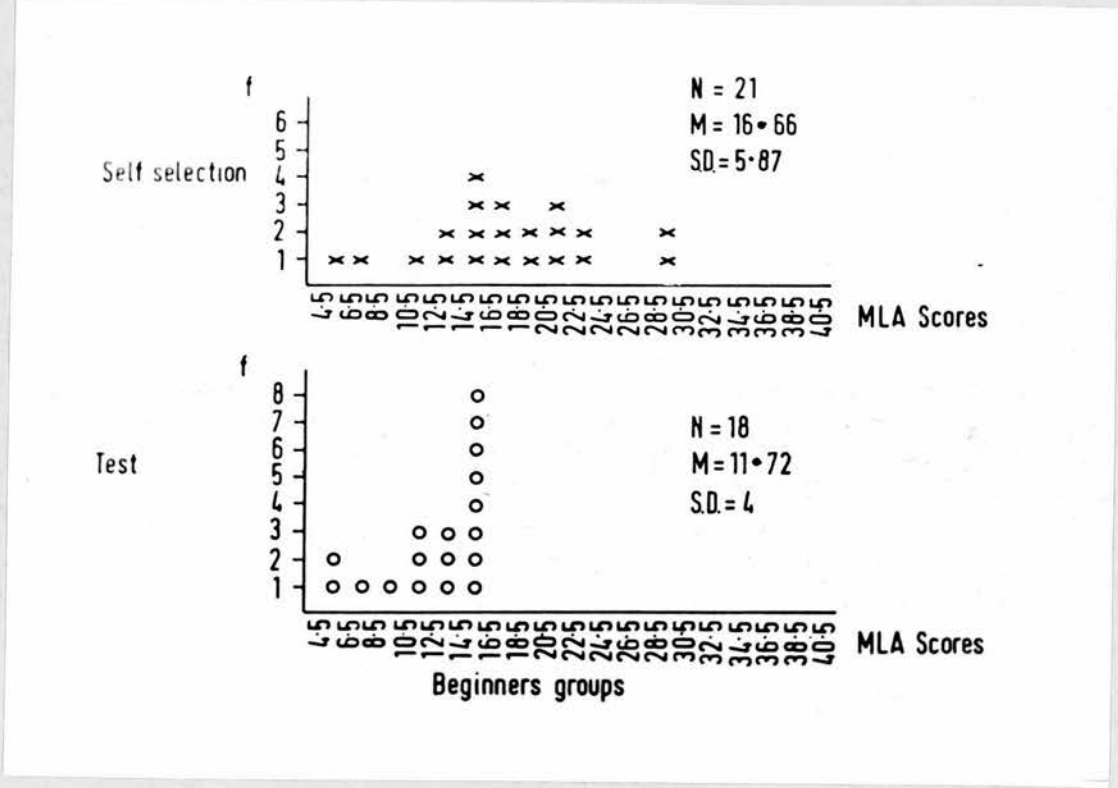
Fig. 2 shows that if grouping had been carried out on the basis of objective testing - using the results of the MLA test as indicated above - four homogeneous groups could have been formed having the following characteristics.

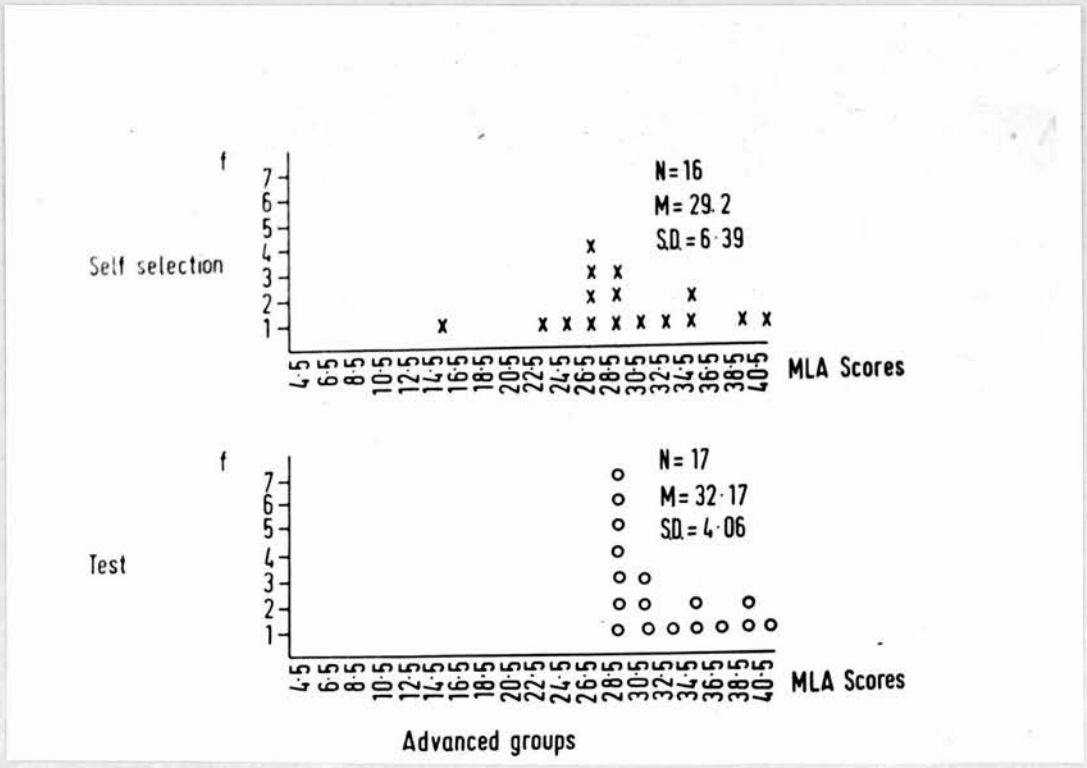
Table 4 Grouping into homogeneous groups by objective testing

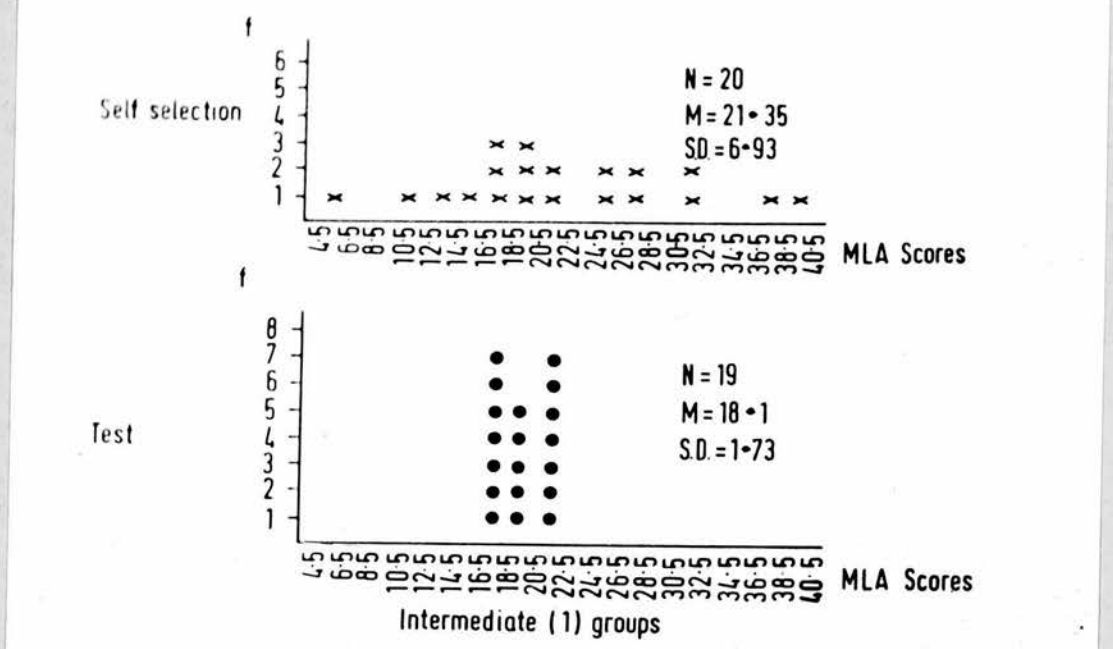
Range of MLA scores within each group	Group level	Number of trainees	Mean	SD	Range
28 to 40	Good to very good	17	32.2	4.06	12
21 to 27	Average to good	17	24.6	2.23	6
16 to 20	Poor to average	19	18.15	1.73	4
4 to 15	Very poor to poor	18	11.72	4	9

A study of individual cases showed that if grouping had been carried out objectively, the actual groups would have had to be completely reorganised since 41 teachers (57%) of all the trainees were misplaced (Table 5).

Fig. 2 Comparison of groups obtained on the basis of 1) self selection and 2) objective testing.






f
Self selection
N = 20
M = 21·35
SD = 6·93
MLA Scores
f
Test
N = 19
M = 18·1
S.D. = 1·73
MLA Scores
Intermediate (1) groups

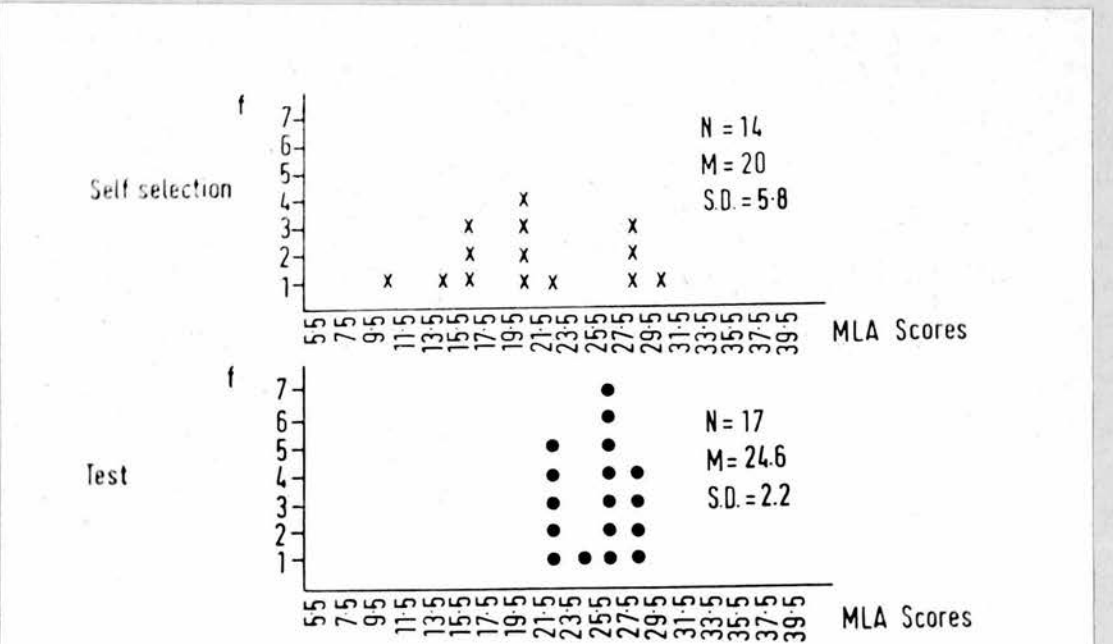

f
Self selection
N = 14
M = 20
S.D. = 5·8
MLA Scores
f
Test
N = 17
M = 24.6
S.D. = 2.2
MLA Scores
Intermediate (2) groups

Table 5 Reorganisation of the actual groups after testing

Actual groups	No.of teachers misplaced in actual groups (N = 41)	Groups in which the teachers should have been			
		Beginners	Inter.I	Inter.2	Advanced
Beginners	12	-	2	8	2
Inter.I	8	4	-	2	2
Inter.2	14	4	6	-	4
Advanced	7	1	6	0	-

3) Academic qualifications in French

The value of the trainees' academic qualifications in French as a valid instrument for assessing ability in oral French was investigated. First of all, two groups of trainees (N = 34) were tested on entrance to the course with the MLA listening test. They were divided into three categories according to their test scores, i.e. the bottom third category scores ranged from 4 to 15, the middle third category ranged from 16 to 20 and the top third from 21 to 37. On the other hand, three distinct categories of academic qualifications were also established, i.e. O-level, H-level and university level. Each teacher was then classified with respect to those two variables (Table 6).

Table 6 Relationship between academic qualifications and scores on the MLA test

MLA scores	Academic qualifications			
	O level	H level	University level	Total
Bottom third (4-15)	2	5	2	9
Middle third (16-20)	5	6	3	14
Top third (21-37)	0	7	4	11
Total	7	18	9	34

The null hypothesis was then tested by applying the usual formula.[1] It was found that X^2 was equal to 3.28 which with 4 degrees of freedom gives P = 0.70 - 0.80 which is not significant. Therefore, it was concluded that there was no evidence of real association between academic qualifications in French and oral ability as measured by the MLA listening test.

The same procedure was used in categorizing the trainees according to their results on the PF test. In this case the bottom third scores ranged from 3 to 11, the middle third scores ranged from 12 to 16 and those of the top third from 17 to 23 (Table 7).

It was found that

$X^2 = 1.67$, df = 4, P = 0.80 - 0.70, i.e. is not significant.

As in the first case it was concluded that there was no evidence of real association between academic qualifications in French and the results on a test of oral performance.

Table 7 Relationship between academic qualifications and initial scores on the PF test

PF Scores	Academic qualifications			
	O level	H level	University level	
Bottom third (3-11)	4	7	2	13
Middle third (12-16)	3	5	4	12
Top third (17-23)	0	6	3	9
	7	18	9	34

[1] Yates' correction (Garrett, 1966: 258) for small table entries was applied to the formula.

It was therefore concluded that academic qualifications in French could not be used as a sensitive and reliable instrument for grouping PF teachers into homogeneous classes for training.

3.3.2 Testing after training

1. Categorization

This part differs from the rest of the investigation in two of its aspects. First of all, whereas we have been concerned so far with testing the trainees as part of a group, this section uses tests to assess the trainees as individuals. Secondly, whereas the test results obtained have sufficed to provide an answer to our queries, in this section we have to pair the objective results obtained by testing with a value judgement.

It has been suggested earlier in this study (II: 1.4.2 ii) that training did not necessarily result in ability to teach. For this reason, one of our aims in testing was to assess the final results obtained after training.

The terminal behaviour of 34 trainees was measured by the PF test on the last day of the courses. However, in order to interpret these results, we had firstly to set the specific standard of proficiency which we would accept as sufficient. This was a matter of value judgement based on three main considerations. We had to take into account the minimum linguistic objectives defined for a course as will be outlined later (III: 1.1.2). In terms of scores it seemed that the threshold of proficiency lies

somewhere around 20.[1]

The relative improvement in the teachers' performance during the course had to be taken into consideration and the final scores could not be taken at their face value, e.g. a final score of 20 was given more weight if the entrance score was low than if the same final score was obtained by a teacher whose entrance score was nearly equal to or even higher than 20. The first case is an indication that the teacher is able to progress while the other case shows that he is not. Moreover, the number of teachers required for a PF programme must also be taken into consideration before categorizing the trainees. There seems to be little doubt that the standard for teacher-proficiency for PF teaching cannot be rigorously determined once and for all. Testing is only an aid designed to strengthen other considerations on the question of categorization and this, we believe, leads to replace the dichotomous classification of proficient vs. non-proficient by a more sensitive type. Our own classification consists of 3 categories:[2]

Category A - those teachers who are sufficiently proficient and do not need more than occasional help.

Category B - those teachers whose proficiency is not consistent enough to teach but who would benefit by further

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1 A score of 20 was set as a probable minimum of proficiency on the results of class observations paired with the test scores.

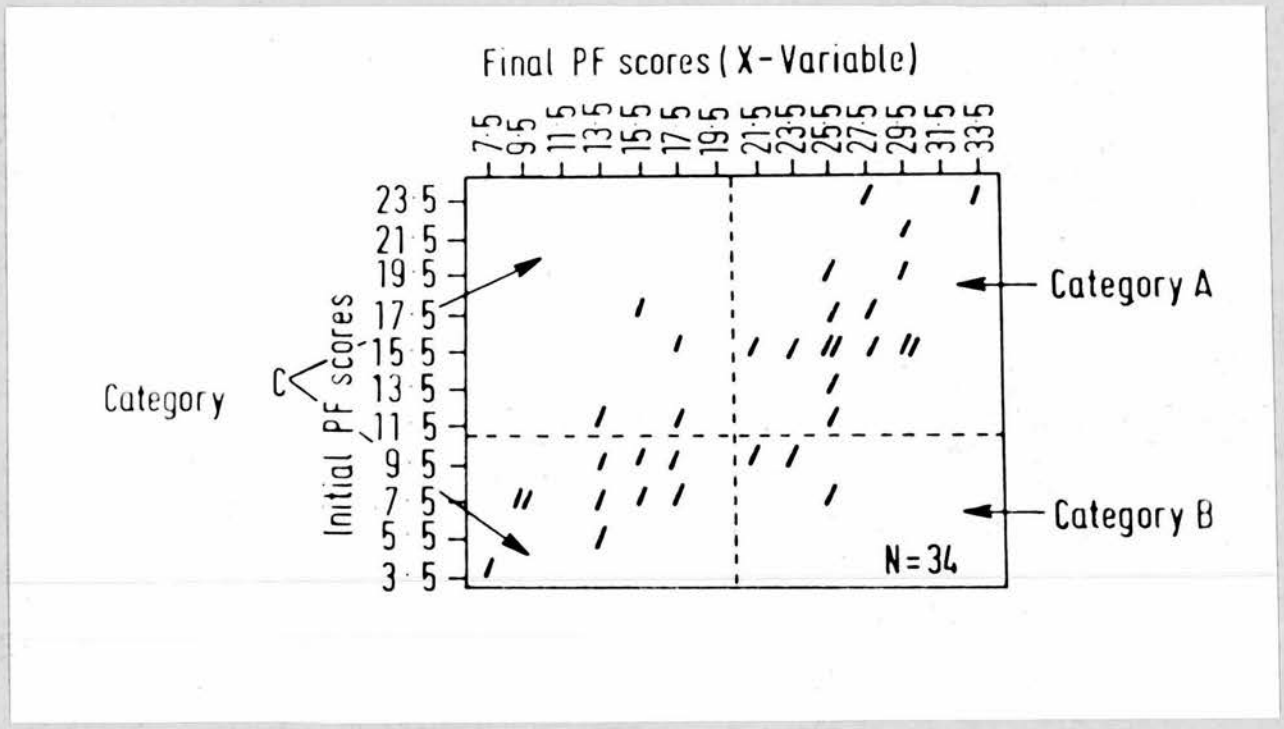
2 This categorization of the trainees partly corresponds to that of the PF teachers as decided by the Education Department in November 1968 (I: 3.3.1).

training.

Category C - those teachers who should be dissuaded from teaching because their proficiency is not sufficient and is unlikely to improve with additional training.

These three categories clearly emerge from a study of the 34 paired scores of PF test as represented in the following scattergram

Fig. 3 Scattergram showing the paired scores on first and second administration of PF test (N = 34)



In this scattergram, the entrance test scores have been plotted on the Y-axis and the final scores on the X-axis. A vertical line has been drawn passing through score 20 on the X-axis and a horizontal line passing between the scores of 10 and 12 on the Y-axis. These two intersecting lines

divide the scattergram into four boxes corresponding to our relevant categories.

On the top right, we have the first category (A) of teachers who have consistently scored high on both administrations of the test. The teachers in the box on the bottom right represent our second category (B) composed of teachers who improved beyond the proficiency line in the course of training. It should be noted that, in this particular group, all these teachers were young and quite motivated. The third category (C) of teachers for whom training has not proved useful is composed of (i) those teachers who consistently scored low on both tests, and (ii) those, in the top left box, who did not sufficiently improve on their initial results or who even regressed. It should be noted that in the top left box two of the teachers were over 50, the other two were young but quite unmotivated.

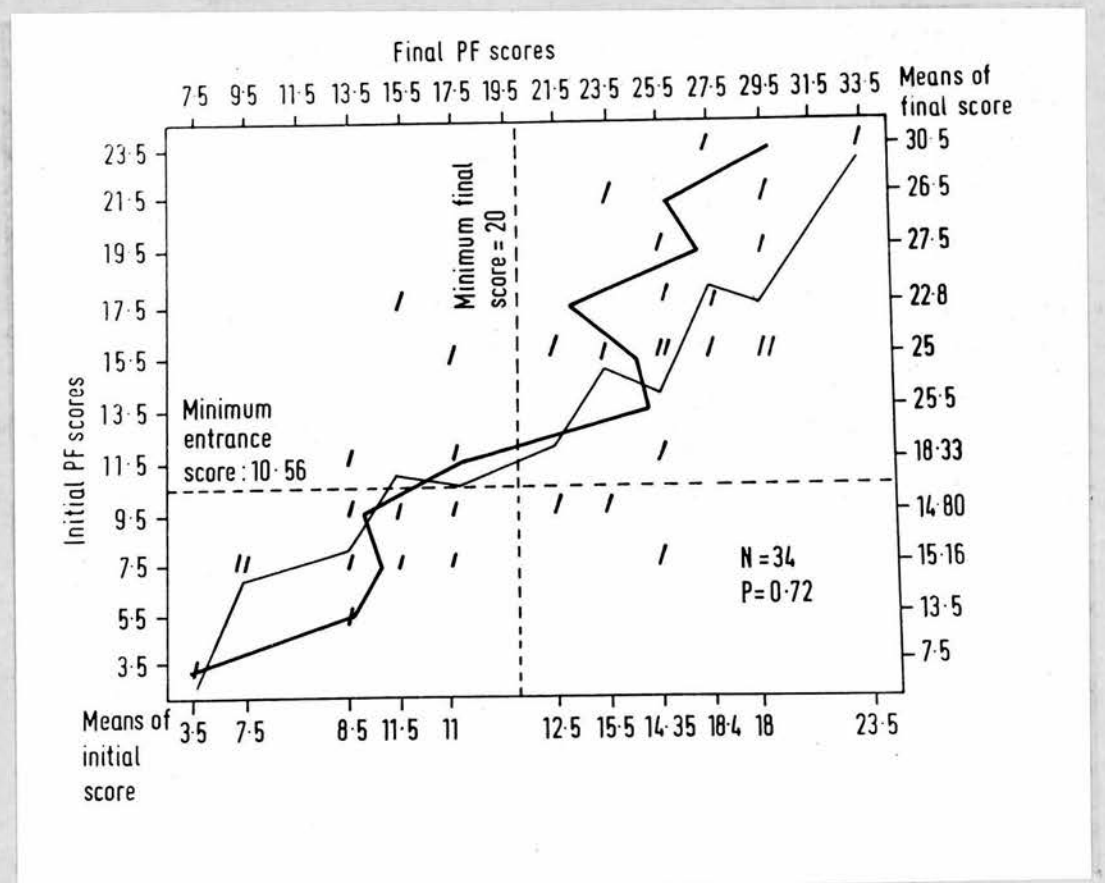
This particular group showed that two-fifths of the trainees (N = 14) could be considered as being still unsuited for PF teaching after training, a conclusion that leads directly to the necessity of selecting the applicants to training courses in order to reduce the wastage.

2. Selection

Selection is concerned with the identification prior to training of those teachers who stand a reasonable chance of reaching a sufficient level of proficiency after training. More precisely, if we take the same sample of 34 trainees whose results on the PF test we have described in the first part of this section, we should require to know what

minimum score ought to be obtained on the entrance test for the teacher to be likely to reach at least the minimum standard of proficiency which we have set at 20 on the final test score.

The illustration below (Fig. 4) shows that it is possible to 'predict' one variable from another from the scatterdiagram alone. This prediction, however, lacks accuracy.



In an attempt to reach more precision we calculated the equations of the two regression lines, i.e. the straight lines which 'best fit' the means of the columns and rows in the correlation table. These lines describe the general relationship between the predictor value (the scores on the entrance test) and the prediction (the scores on the final test). The equations of these lines, in score form, are as follows:

$$\bar{Y} = r\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}(X - M_x) + M_y \qquad (1)$$

$$\bar{X} = r\frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}(Y - M_y) + M_x \qquad (2)$$

where $\bar{Y}$ represents any actual score on the entrance test.

$\bar{X}$ represents any actual score on the final test.

M_x = 21.3, the mean of all the scores on x.

M_y = 13.3, the mean of all the scores on y.

σ_x = 6.56, the standard deviation of the x-distribution.

σ_y = 5.32, the standard deviation of the y-distribution.

r = 0.72, the correlation coefficient of x and y.

$r\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}$ = 0.583, the regression coefficient of y on x, i.e. the slope of the regression line.

$r\frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}$ = 0.887, the regression coefficient of x on y, i.e. the slope of the line.

If one decides that the final score must be at least 20 then, using equation (1) one finds that the most probable score which a trainee should obtain initially is 10.56, if he is to reach the final target (see Appendix B6 for details of calculations).

Similarly, but using equation (2), one could predict that a trainee who scores 12 on the entrance test is likely to reach a final score of 20.14.

The question naturally arises of how accurate is our prediction or estimate. This depends on the standard error of estimate (σ est.). In the case of our data, the standard error of estimate is unfortunately high (Appendix B6)

$$\sigma \text{ (est x)} = 4.55$$
$$\sigma \text{ (est y)} = 3.69$$

This is due to the large variability of the dependent variable (the variable we want to predict) (Garrett, 1967: 165). In other words, this means that owing to the large standard deviation, our estimate is not very reliable, e.g. the initial score of 10.56 which was found to correspond to a final score of 20 could in fact vary within $\pm$ 1 SE (est), i.e. our initial score is 10.56 $\pm$ 3.69 or varies between 6.87 and 14.25.

Similarly, a teacher who scores 10 on the entrance test could have a final score of anything between 13.82 and 22.92 ($X = 18.37 \pm 4.55$).

Several points should be made in conclusion:

(i) The low reliability of the prediction that we were able to make in the case of our particular data does not affect the value of the technique used for selection.

(ii) The results point to the impossibility of drawing hard and fast rules for selecting applicants to a course. These results should be taken as an aid in the final decision

to accept or reject applicants but borderline cases should be considered individually in the light of such factors as age, assumed motivation, experience in teaching French, likelihood of stability in the job, etc.

(iii) The results provide a useful guide in deciding on a cutting-off score, below which applicants should be rejected.

If a large number of PF teachers are required by the Education Authorities, then the cutting-off score can be shifted downwards. Let us examine what this means in the case of our data if, for example, the entrance score is 8: 32 applicants will be accepted out of 34. The predicted score is 16.5 ± 4.55 (or between 11.95 and 21.05) which indicates that the risk of wastage is high. In fact, twelve of the trainees or 37% of the training group will probably prove unable to reach the required final score of 20. On the other hand, no applicant who might be able to reach that score will have been rejected.

If there is no shortage of PF teachers, the conditions for acceptance on a course can be made more stringent and the cutting-off point shifted upwards. In the case of our data if the minimum entrance score is set at 15, only 18 applicants will be selected. Since the predicted final score is 22.8 ± 4.55 (i.e. it lies between 18.25 and 27.35), it shows that the rate of wastage is likely to be low. In fact, only two trainees should fail to reach sufficient proficiency. On the other hand, a stricter selection would miss 4 applicants who would otherwise succeed.

It is the responsibility of the Educational Authorities to know what rate of wastage they can afford.

3. Academic qualifications

In connection with the problem of selection, the value of the applicants' academic qualifications in French was also investigated.

The final scores obtained on the PF test by the same sample of 31 trainees[1] were compared with their academic qualifications in the language in order to see if their final results could have been predicted. More precisely, the scores were divided into 3 categories: the bottom category scores ranged from 4 to 17, the middle category from 18 to 24, and the top category from 25 to 34, (Table 8). Similarly, three categories of academic qualifications were established, i.e. O-level, H-level and University level. Each teacher was classified with respect to these 2 variables.

Table 8 Relationship between academic qualifications and final scores on the PF test

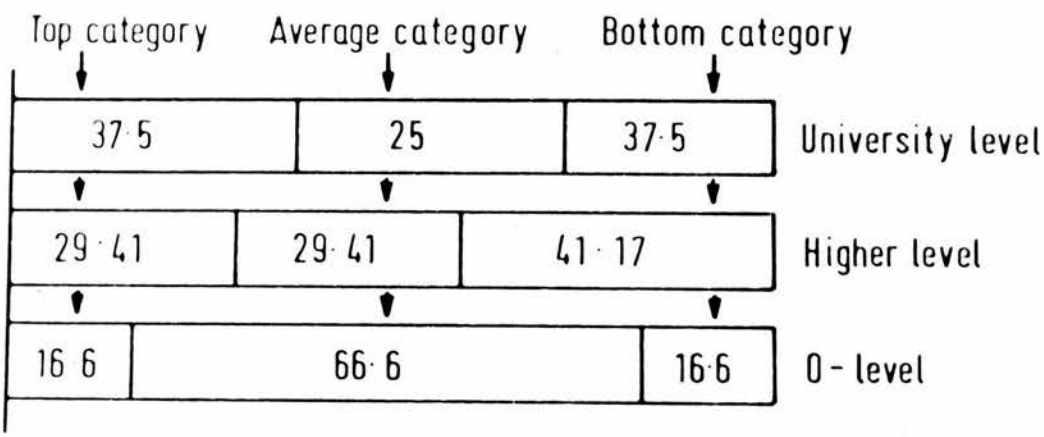
PF scores	Academic qualifications			
	O level	H level	University level	
Bottom third (4-17)	1	5	3	9
Middle third (18-24)	4	5	2	11
Top third (25-34)	1	7	3	11
	6	17	6	31

[1] The final results of 3 trainees who had no qualifications in French had to be discounted.

The null hypothesis was used to investigate the association between these 2 variables. It was found that X^2 of 2.34 with 4 degree of freedom yields a P-value between 0.7 and 0.5. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted and we concluded that there was no evidence of real association between academic qualifications in French and success on a training course and consequently selection of applicants should not be based solely on academic qualifications.

The bar diagram (Fig. 5) shows the detail of the distribution of actual abilities in oral French within each category of academic qualifications.

Fig. 5 Distribution in percentages of the 3 categories of ability in oral French as tested by the PF test, within each level of academic qualification in French

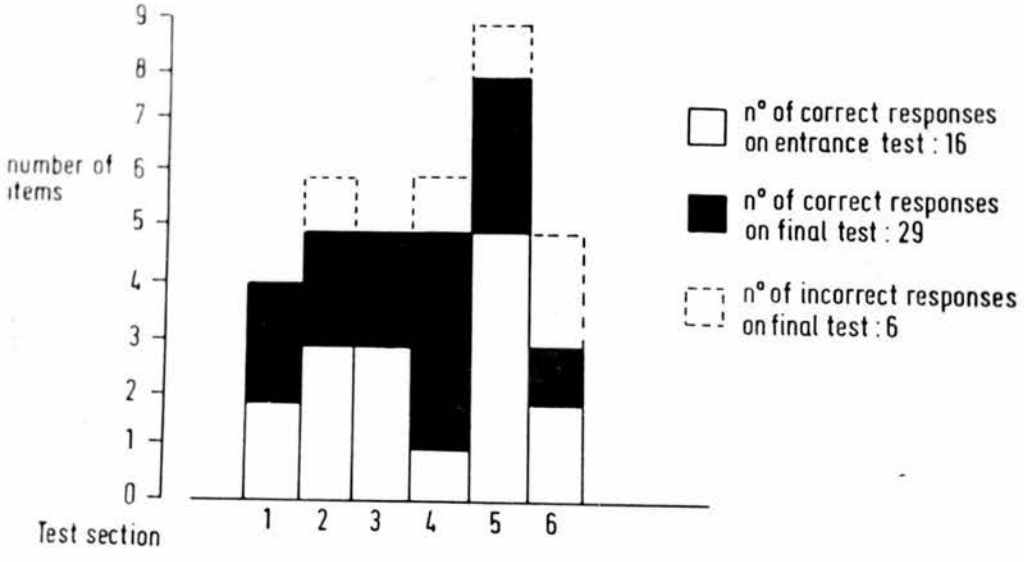


3.3.3 Diagnostic Testing

Data analysis carried out from the point of view of individual performances yielded a specific picture of each teacher's level of proficiency before and after training. Three examples of diagnostic analysis are given here which are characteristic of one category of teachers as obtained at the end of a training course

Case no. 1. Mrs. L. (45 years old) had an average score of 16 on entrance and ranked 12th with 7 other teachers (N = 34) (Fig. 6). Diagnostic testing showed that her performance needed improvement in all the relevant areas of grammar. Her phonemic production was found to be satisfactory and she answered all the questions in an intelligible manner.

Fig. 6 Graphical representation of Mrs. L's results on entrance and final tests for diagnostic purposes

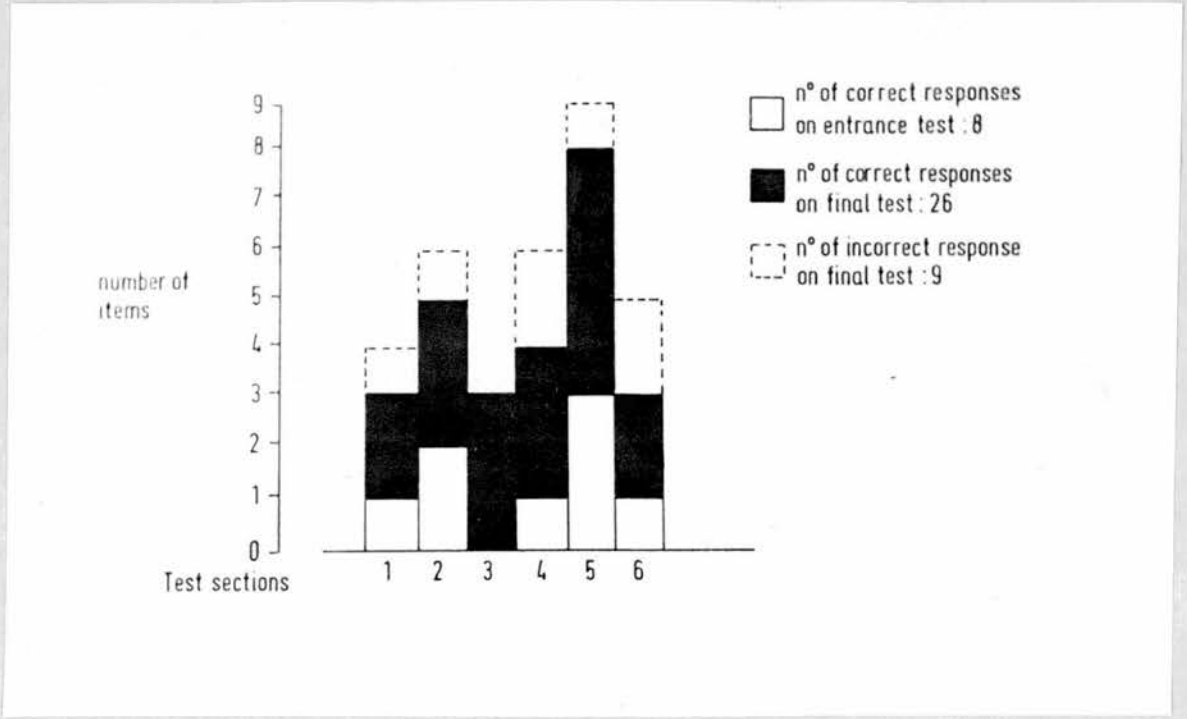


She scored 29 and ranked 4th on the final test showing that she could perform satisfactorily nearly all the items essential to primary teaching, but needed further help on some of them, particularly on the presentatives (test section no. 6). These areas were pointed out to her in order for her to be aware of them when teaching.

She was assigned to category A (II: 3. 3. 2) with those teachers who could teach without any further training.

Case no. 2. Miss W. is a typical example of an enthusiastic young teacher whose oral French was very poor at the start - she scored 8 and ranked 28th (Fig. 7) but who dramatically improved her performance during the course. From the beginning she was made aware of her need for improvement in all areas and the teacher-trainer knew she needed special attention. She left many questions in the entrance test unanswered and some of her responses were unintelligible.

Fig. 7 Graphical representation of Miss W's results on entrance and final tests for diagnostic purposes

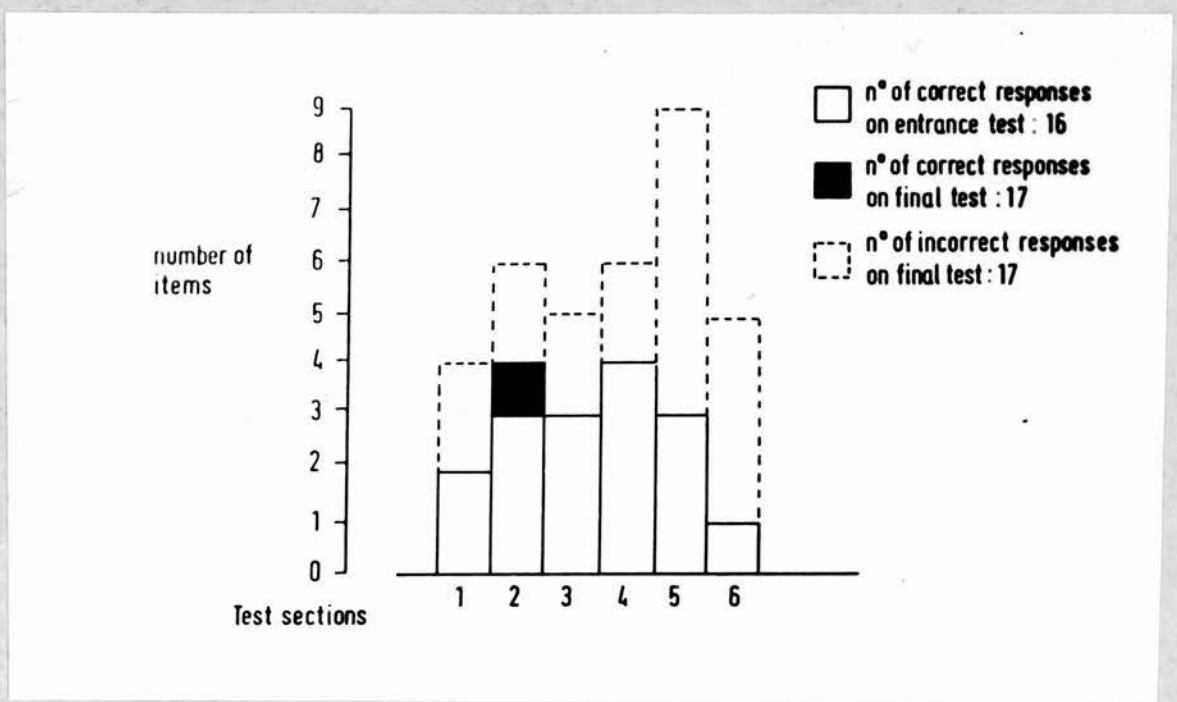


Her final score of 26 (she ranked 9th) showed her great ability to improve her performance of the language. Diagnostic analysis of her final results showed the areas of grammar that still needed further practice.

Although her achievement was well above the level of proficiency required at the end of a course, she was classified as a category B teacher, i.e. as one who would be able to teach with further training. This categorization was decided on the ground that her newly acquired proficiency might be of short duration.

Case no. 3. Mrs. MacL. (55 years old) obtained an average entrance score of 16 as did 7 other teachers and ranked 12th. (Fig. 8). The analysis of her initial results showed that she could perform reasonably well on all the relevant areas.

Fig. 8 Graphical representation of Mrs. MacL's results on entrance and final test for diagnostic purposes



However, for some unknown reasons (age, lack of motivation, natural inability, etc.) she was unable to make any progress. She scored only 17 on the final test and ranked 27th out of 34 teachers. Her final test shows that her responses were absolutely identical to those of her entrance test and that thus she had remained surprisingly impervious to six weeks' training.

She was assigned to category C, i.e. the category of teachers who should not teach French and who should not be given any further training.

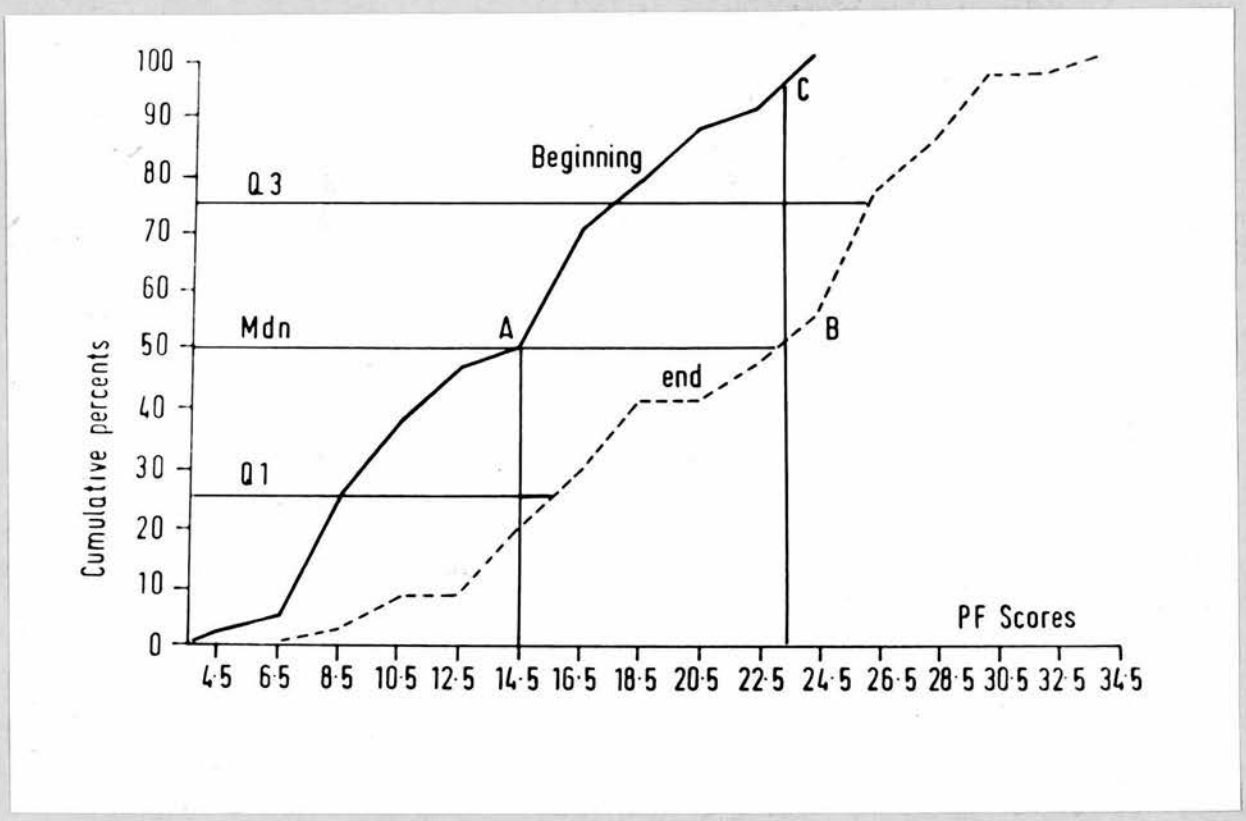
3.3.4 Assessment of the course

The value of the experimental training materials was assessed in terms of (a) the overall results achieved by a group of trainees and (b) the effect of training on specific grammatical aspects of the syllabus, their performance of specific areas of grammar.

Overall value

This value was assessed by the 'single group' method which consists in determining "the significance of the difference between correlated means obtained from the same test administered to the same group upon two occasions", (Garrett, 1967: 226). We used the PF test on both occasions. This test was administered to a group of 34 trainees on the first and last day of a six weeks' course. The mean score of the group upon first administration was 13.3 with a SD of 5.32. The mean score of the same test upon second administration was 21.3 with a SD of 6.56 (Fig. 9).

Fig. 9 Ogives representing the scores of 34 trainees on first and second administration of the PF test



where Mdn = median.

Q1 = first quartile, i.e. the point below which lie 25% of the scores.

Q3 = third quartile, i.e. the point below which lie 75% of the scores.

Fig. 9 shows that the trainees scored consistently higher on the PF test at the end of the course. However, the improvement is not so great over the low range of scores (cf: horizontal line Q1) as over the middle or high range (cf: horizontal lines Mdn and Q3). The trainees' median on the second test is 23.5 and on the first 14.5.

The difference between these measures is represented by the line AB. By extending the vertical line through B up to C, Fig. 9 shows that approximately 95% of the trainees' first set of scores fall below their second set of scores. Moreover, the vertical line through A cuts the trainees' second set of scores (dotted line) at approximately the 20th percentile, therefore, 80% of these scores are above the median of the first set of scores (Garrett, 1967: 74).

For a standard error (SEd)[1] of 0.79 (Appendix B4), the t-ratio[2] is $\frac{M2 - M1}{SEd} = 10.1$. Since there are 34 pairs of scores the degree of freedom (df) is 33. The t for df = 33 is 2.75 at the 0.01 level. The obtained t is far greater than 2.75 and hence can be considered as highly significant. Therefore, it seems certain that the experimental materials used for training contributed to the substantial progress made by the trainees.

Detailed assessment

The effect of training upon the specific areas of grammar included in the course syllabus was also assessed. This was done by comparing the number of correct responses within each of the 6 areas of grammar (Table 9). A bar diagram illustrates these results (Fig. 10).

The overall results were considered as satisfactory. However, the results on section 4 and section 6 were found to be insufficient since in spite of improvement in these two areas only 41% and 54% of the group respectively was

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1 SEd = standard error of the difference between means.

2 M2 - M1 = difference between means where M2 = 21.3 and M1 = 13.3.

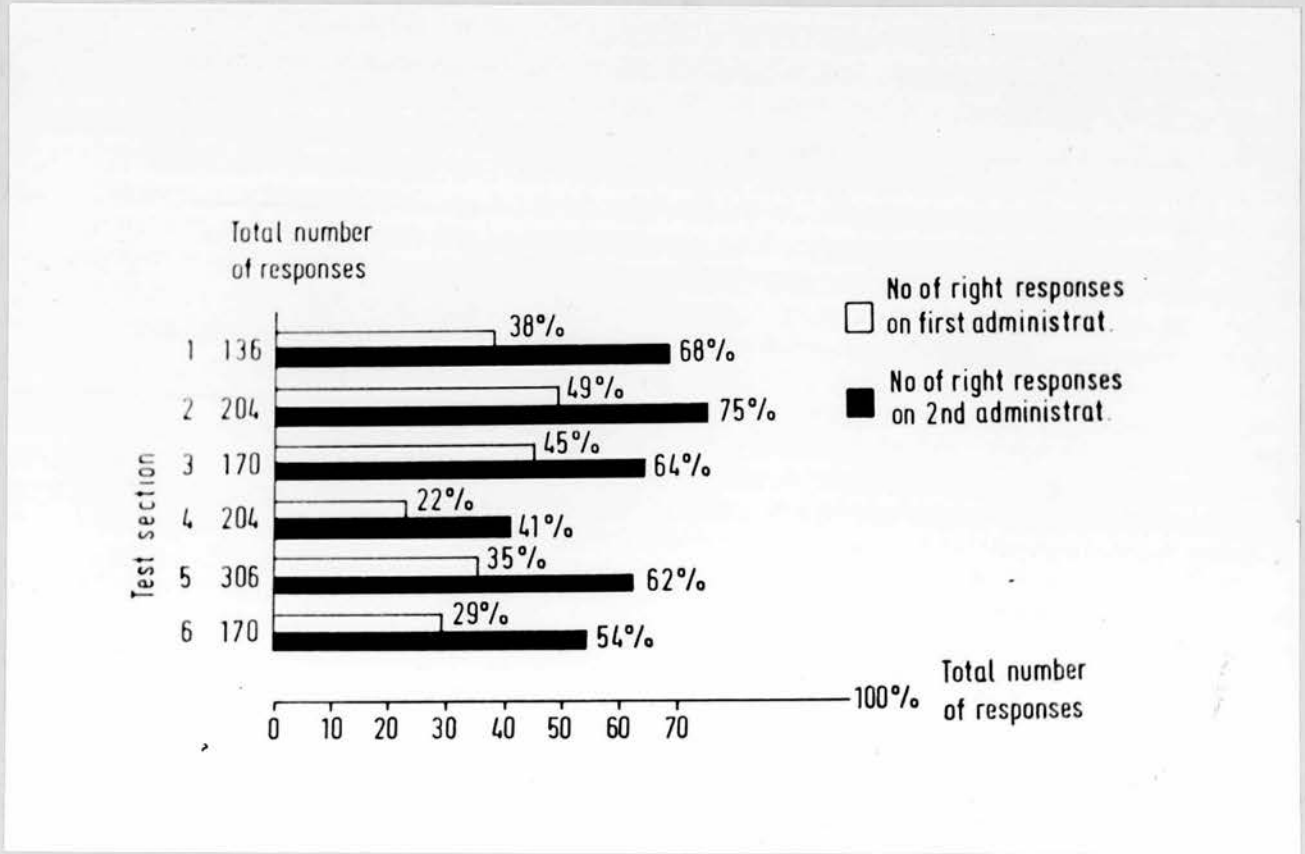
able to achieve correct responses after training (Fig.10).

Table 9 Analysis of PF test results section by section

Test Section	Areas of language	No.of quest-ions	Total no.of res-ponses	Number of right responses 1st test	2nd test
1	'En'	4	136	52 (38%)	93 (68%)
2	'Il est/c'est'	6	204	100 (49%)	153 (75%)
3	Imperatives	5	170	78 (45%)	109 (64%)
4	Negations & neg. & det.	6	204	46 (22%)	84 (41%)
5	Question forms	9	306	108 (35%)	190 (62%)
6	Presentatives	5	170	50 (29%)	93 (54%)

In the light of those results, the experimental materials dealing with these two grammatical areas were revised.

Fig. 10 Comparative bar diagram. The bars represent the percentage of right responses on first and second administration of the test



CHAPTER 4

TESTING THE PRIMARY PUPILS

4.1 Aims

Our aims in testing the pupils' performance in French was to investigate the relationship, if any, between the teachers' knowledge of the language and their pupils' achievement.

The assumption that the teachers' knowledge of the language bears a direct relationship to the pupils' performance in that language may seem too self-evident to warrant any such investigation. PF teacher-training is based on this assumption which has been strengthened by various studies carried out in Britain (Burstall, 1968; 1970) and in the United States (Johnson et al., 1962; Garry and Mauriello, 1960). The American studies have shown (I: 1.2.5), in particular, that the pupils of non-specialist teachers scored significantly lower than those of foreign language specialists or highly fluent teachers.

Nevertheless, our own investigation seemed justified on the grounds that (1) no research study had been carried out in Scotland and (2) the method we employed was different.

Whereas the method used in other studies consisted of grouping the teachers into specialist versus non-specialist (Johnson, ibid.) or highly fluent versus non-fluent teachers, we were able to test the teachers objectively and compare their test scores with those of the children.

4.2 Materials

4.2.1 The teachers

The teachers' ability in oral French was tested by the MLA Proficiency test (listening comprehension subtest) which has been described earlier (II: 3.2.1).

4.2.2 The primary pupils

For the children we used the test of listening comprehension which, at the time, was being piloted by the Schools Council Modern Language Project to evaluate the pupils' achievement in French after completion of the Nuffield course 'En Avant', stage 1A.

The test which consisted of 60 sentences was read to the pupils who had then to choose the right answer from a series of pictures. The test content was exclusively based on the textbook content. Forty-eight nouns and twelve verbs were tested in this way.

4.2.3 Preliminary arrangements

The selection of suitable classes for testing was limited by two factors. The test had to be administered to the pupils not more than 3 or 4 weeks after completion of stage 1A and only those classes whose teachers had

obtained a score on the MLA test could participate in our investigation.[1]

4.2.4 Test administration

It was found that 11 teachers out of 16 had not finished stage 1A in spite of the indications given on the school returns. However, the test was administered in every class and the characteristics of each class were obtained, viz: the duration of the French study, the number of the unit of 'En Avant' being studied and the I.Q. of the pupils (see Appendix B7).

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Data Analysis

13 teachers for whom we had test results were ranked according to their MLA scores. Their 13 classes were also ranked according to the mean scores obtained on the Schools Council test. The correlation between these 13 pairs of scores gave a coefficient of .40.[2] On the face of these results no strong relationship could be shown between the teacher's competence in French and the pupils' achievement. However, if one extreme score,[3] which seems to affect the final results is excluded from the calculations, a correlation coefficient of .64 is obtained. This is beyond the minimum .57 necessary to be significant with 10df (Garrett; 1967: 375). Therefore, under normal

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1 The Advisory Department co-operated fully in this project which could not have been carried out otherwise. Arrangements were made for us to visit 16 of the schools thought to comply with our requirements. Unfortunately, through an administrative error, the teachers of 3 of the 16 classes had not sat the MLA test.

2 With 11df (N-2) a correlation coefficient must be at least .55 to be significant at the 0.05 level (Garrett; 1967: 375).

3 This score was obtained by an Honours graduate in French whose hostile feelings to PF teaching were notorious. (See Appendix B7.)

circumstances the teacher's knowledge of the language appears to be related to the pupils' achievement. Our data suggests that certain factors, such as the teacher's hostility to PF teaching, can affect this relationship.

4.3.2 Validity of the results

Morrisson and McIntyre (1969: 21) have pointed out the difficulty of planning an investigation of teacher-effectiveness, in which the pupils of all the teachers concerned are comparable. The authors state that "when this cannot be done, comparisons among teachers on the basis of achievement of pupils become complicated and of doubtful validity". They hold the view that this is the reason why "researchers have generally preferred to use more immediate criteria of the competence of teachers than the achievement of their pupils".

These views, to a large extent, apply to our investigation, since the classes we tested could not be matched and none of the relevant variables could be kept constant. Therefore, it is evident that the results of the experiment should be interpreted with caution.

On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that perfect experimental conditions can rarely be provided when one deals with individuals in natural conditions. We suggest that the kind of information we have obtained would not have been available if the situation had been contrived for the sake of the experiment. There is no doubt that some of the classes we dealt with could not have been included in a more controlled experiment because their teachers would have refused to participate. The

degree of insight which we gained into the relationship between teacher-ability and pupils' achievement may be made clearer by a description of some individual cases.

4.3.3 Study of individual cases

The following 4 cases may be considered as typical.

The first of these cases is that of Mr. B., an honours' graduate in French (Appendix C2, case no. 16). The quality of his French could obviously not be doubted, nevertheless his class ranked bottom on the Nuffield test. The information obtained about him from the school and from the teacher-demonstrator from the Advisory Department as well as our personal observation of his own behaviour revealed that he was utterly hostile to the French scheme.

The second case (Appendix C2, case no. 4) is also that of an honours' graduate in French. Mrs. G.'s performance in French comes very close to that of a native-speaker. As a teacher-demonstrator of the Advisory Department, she had been teaching French for 5 months to a Primary 5 in one of the Corporation Schools. The lessons took place with great regularity and lasted 30 minutes daily. In this school, the pupils engaged in French learning were guided by a very active and enthusiastic team of teachers and the pupils were made to look forward to a trip to France. Mrs. G.'s class ranked 4th on the Nuffield test in spite of the following facts: the I.Q. of the class was low, including several children well below 90; the children were younger than in most other classes; the syllabus and method used were different from those on which the test was based; the

teacher was not using the Nuffield course; the period of instruction was short as compared to that of other classes.

Mrs. C.'s class (Appendix C2, case no. 1) ranked top of all the classes tested. The teacher's performance in French, although far from that of a native-speaker or French specialist, could be described as very adequate for PF teaching. The teacher spoke with confidence in clearly audible utterances and if hesitant about a grammatical form to communicate with her pupils she would prefer incorrect production rather than revert to English or lapse into silence. This was observed both with her own class and at evening classes which she voluntarily attended at the French Institute. There is no doubt that the teacher's personal drive and enthusiasm was above average. It seems that the striking characteristic of this case lies in the speed at which the Nuffield materials were covered. In only 8 months, the pupils had been guided through the 20 units of stage 1A as well as the first five units of stage 1B and they had found time to realise a successful project on French regions. It should naturally be noted that the average class I.Q. was high and included some very bright children.

The case of Mr. M. (Appendix C2, case no. 9) seems to contradict the hypothesis that knowledge of French is an essential factor in French teaching. If this were true, Mr. M.'s class would have ranked far behind the others. Mr. M., who had studied French as a subsidiary subject for a degree, had scored bottom on the MLA test 28th on the

first administration of the oral expression test and 33rd on the second (N = 34). His French was mostly unintelligible because of poor pronunciation and incorrect grammar. Nevertheless, his class ranked 9th out of the 16 classes tested and came next to that of a teacher whose French was good and fluent. Also, his class obtained better results than those of four other teachers whose French was better than his. However, it should be noted that he had only reached unit 7 of stage 1A in two years.[1] These observations suggest that while the test results do not particularly reflect the teacher's low ability in French, they may be of considerably less value if one considers the amount of time taken to reach them.

The case of Mr. M. led us to analyse the average speed at which the teachers covered the units of work of the Nuffield material. It was found that the teachers whose classes ranked in the top third (i.e. from case no. 1 to case no. 6)[2] spent an average of 20 days on each unit. The teachers whose classes ranked in the bottom third spent an average of 45 days on the units of work.

4.4 Conclusions

Our investigation indicates that there is a tendency for those teachers whose ability in French is good or very good to obtain better results from their pupils than those whose ability is minimal. However, this tendency is only

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1 This seems very slow progress even taking into account the fact that he was also using STV French programme.

2 Case no. 4 was excluded because the teacher used other teaching materials.

present in those cases where the teacher actively welcomes his involvement in PF teaching. The teacher's personality and attitude seem to play such an important role in the pupils' achievement that it can, to a certain extent, compensate for an insufficient command of the language on the teacher's part. It is doubtful, however, whether the teacher's enthusiasm could overcome his inability in the language if French was not limited to textbook teaching but integrated into the school day. On the other hand, hostility or even indifference to the PF programme leads to low achievement at pupil level whatever the teacher's skill in French may be.

This study points to the importance of the rate at which the teachers cover the primary course materials as a potential indication of teacher-effectiveness in PF teaching. Good results seem to be associated with a high rate of teaching. This may be so because the interest of the young pupils is constantly kept up. This may also indicate that the teacher is convinced enough of the value of PF teaching to give the French lesson its place in the school day. More investigation of this aspect of teacher-effectiveness is required.

CHAPTER 5

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

5.0 Introduction

The importance of the learner factor in course-planning has often been underlined in the relevant literature. We have also recognised in the course of our experience that this factor was of crucial importance in teacher-training. However, very little was known about the learners, i.e. the trainees, when our study was started. Therefore, a questionnaire (see Appendix C1) was given to a training group of PF teachers in order to obtain the relevant background information. In 1968, this group represented one-seventh of the whole population of Edinburgh primary teachers involved in French teaching.

5.1 The problem

5.1.1 The components of the learner factor

Three main variables of the learner factor should be taken into consideration when drawing up a course: these are (i) ability in the target language, (ii) motivation in learning it and (iii) other individual differences that may

be of relevance to a given learning situation.

(i) Ability

Whereas some authors, e.g. Howatt (1967), consider that this variable refers essentially to the learners' actual competence in the language on entry to a course, others, e.g. Lambert and Gardner (1959) and Strevens (1965), also take into account the learners' potential ability, i.e. their general disposition towards language-learning as indicated by their general intelligence, their previous language learning experience, and average educational level.

(ii) Motivation

The importance of this variable in language learning achievement has been underlined in such experimental works as those of Lambert and Gardner (1960), Carroll (1962) and Pimsleur (1963). The various factors of the motivational variable delineated in those studies cannot, however, be taken as a close model for our own definition of motivation because motivation cannot be analysed out of the context in which it operates.

The particular relevance of motivation to adult language learning was pointed out by Strevens (ibid: 33) who notes that an adult who is in a class against his will is likely to do badly.

(iii) Other individual differences

The third variable of the learner factor includes such individual differences as may be of relevance in the learning situation, e.g. age, learning strategies, reaction to the teacher, illustrate these differences.

5.1.2 The learner factor in teacher-training

It should be clearly realised, before we proceed, that one of the characteristics most likely to affect an investigation of the learner factor in teacher-training courses is the dual aspect of the individuals being trained, i.e. the individuals are both learners and teachers of the language. Consequently, in the same way as their ability in the language should, as far as possible, be related to their teaching capacity, their motivation in learning the language should be linked with their motivation in teaching it.

5.1.3 The learner factor in our experimental training courses

Early during the course of our experimental training (see I: 3.2.4), the learner factor appeared to be of particular importance in training primary teachers when these teachers were recruited on a non-selective basis. In order to understand the crucial role played by this factor in in-service courses, it should be emphasized that teaching a FL has never been part of the primary school curriculum and, therefore, has never been part of the teachers' initial training. Consequently, primary teachers have found themselves faced with an entirely new duty for which they had not been professionally or mentally prepared. Therefore, one could normally predict that such a change in the teachers' working lives would produce a spectrum of individual reactions ranging from positive to negative as well as a wide range of abilities and other relevant individual differences.

5.1.4 Investigating the learner factor in our training courses

During the 1967-68 training courses the learners' ability in oral French was assessed by testing (II: 3). Information on the other aspects of the learner factor could not be obtained with certainty by any short method. Discarding the interview as impracticable, we chose the questionnaire technique to collect information on the learner factor.

It should be stressed here, that this questionnaire, the results of which are reported in this chapter, had been intended as a pilot study. However, owing to the fact that the same conditions were not repeated after 1968, we were unable to carry out the investigation a second time.

5.1.5 Specific purposes of the present investigation

The first aim of the investigation was to obtain a state description of the population by studying the three main variables relating to the learner factor as was discussed in the previous subsections.

The second aim was to explore the relationship between these variables and to obtain a process description of the population of teachers in training.

5.1.6 Hypotheses

It has often been stated (Goode and Hatt, 1952) that the model of scientific procedure applicable to survey techniques involves the testing of preformulated hypotheses. However, Rosenberg (1968: 218) argues that "although the professional literature tends to present its results within the hypothesis-testing framework, the published report may

by no means correspond to the actual research procedure". This point of view seems of particular relevance to investigations, such as ours, which are carried out in areas where the publications on the subject are either inadequate or non-existent. In such cases where the crucial elements in the problem are not clearly known, the hypotheses can only be tentative and loosely defined.

(i) We hypothesized that in the same way as non-selected primary teachers showed wide variations in their ability in the language (II: 3.3.1), they would display a wide range of attitudes to PF teaching. It was thought that the motivation of some trainees would be very low, so low in fact that their participation in the French programme would be seriously questioned.

(ii) As a corollary to the potential presence of unmotivated trainees on the course, we hypothesized that involvement in a large-scale programme, like the Edinburgh French programme, would not entirely be based on free will.

(iii) With regards to the relationship between the variables under study we formulated two main subhypotheses, viz. that (a) ability in the target language would be positively related to the motivational variable in the sense that good knowledge of the language would probably be linked with a favourable attitude towards teaching it and high motivation in being trained; (b) that the teachers' ability in French would be related to the importance of their contacts with the language in general and not necessarily to their academic qualifications.

5.2 Research procedure

5.2.1 Operational definitions

The importance of the operational definitions has long been an object of disagreement among sociologists. Whereas some 'fact-oriented' sociologists support the opinion that a concept means a set of laboratory directions, others, in the 'theory-oriented' group, contend that a concept goes far beyond the description of the techniques used in order to measure a phenomenon. We are indeed well aware that in defining the operations used to comprehend the very complex phenomena under study, i.e. the learner factor in in-service training courses, we considerably restrict the whole concept. This procedure also means that the present study could not be compared with another one, the operational definitions of which would be different. Nevertheless, it seems clear that the definition of our concepts should be stated if we want to give our results their true meaning in the context of an investigation in its initial phase. They will be dealt with under three headings, motivation, ability and individual differences.

Motivation

We have seen (5.1.1) that the motivational variable is an important component of the learner factor. This variable has been investigated as being composed of three main elements.

The first of these elements concerned the teachers' attitudes to their personal involvement in the French teaching programme. This was measured by a question on their feelings when they were asked to carry out the French instruction and

also by a question on the amount of freedom they had been given in participating to the programme.

The second element of the motivational variable concerned the teachers' attitudes towards the introduction of French into the primary curriculum, independent of their own participation in it. This was measured by two questions on their opinions about the programme in general and the place French should have in the curriculum. It was also measured by a series of questions on their opinions concerning some of the issues involved in primary French, such as the selection of pupils, the contribution of French, the effect of French on other curriculum subjects and their pupils' reaction to the French class.

The third element thought to be related to the teachers' motivation, was their reaction to the course and course materials. This was measured by three questions on their opinion of the course and one on the influence of the course on their own interest for France or French things.

Ability

This variable was also viewed as being broadly composed of three elements.

The first element consisted of the teachers' ability as objectively measured by testing (I: 3). The second element consisted of their previous experience in the language. Academic qualifications, other training courses, acquaintance with France, teaching experience of French, were all taken to be part of their previous experience of the language. Their experience of other languages was also investigated.

The third element, included within the ability variable after much hesitation, consisted of the teachers' self-rating of their French, in relation first to teaching and second to the training course.

The reason for including this element was based on the assumption that confidence, or lack of confidence, in one's own performance in a foreign language is one facet of one's potential ability in using, improving or teaching that language. It is clear that we did not consider that this element provided supplementary information on the teachers' actual ability in the language as measured by other means.

Individual differences

Various individual differences may be of relevance in a teaching situation. However, although we attempted to investigate these differential learning strategies by including questions about them in the questionnaire, we rejected the answers in the final data analysis because they were found to be insufficient or irrelevant. Age was finally the only characteristic that was taken into account.

It is to be regretted that such elements as the teachers' social background, the district and type of school they were teaching in, their headmasters' own attitudes to French as well as their pupils' general levels of attainment could not be investigated since they might have proved of vital importance in explaining the teachers' personal attitude to the teaching of French.

5.2.2 Design

On the basis of the works of Oppenheim (1966) and

Goode and Hatt (1952) two types of variables were formulated: one type could be tested by factual questions, the other by attitudinal questions.

Factual questions ask for objective answers of the type "how old? how often? ...". They are designed in this particular questionnaire to obtain information on age, academic qualifications in French, etc. The design of these questions was not difficult. However some questions that were thought at first to be factual proved to be dependent on personal interpretation even though the questions were objective.

Attitudinal questions ask for a subjective type of answer as "do you agree or not? ...". They also ask the respondents to rate something or themselves. Such questions or question sequences help to place people on a continuum scale. The difficulty with attitudinal questions is, that since it is not possible to obtain all the statements that can be made on a psychological object, one must find a sequence of questions that is likely to outline the main features of this psychological object. In other words, attitudinal questions involve the sampling of a universe of content. However, there seems to be no set way of knowing beforehand whether a particular set of questions is representative of the universe as defined. The problem is largely ignored in the literature on questionnaire design and the initial selection of statements seems to be considered as a matter of intuition and experience.

5.2.3 Administration

The questionnaire was group-administered to 57 trainees. Complete anonymity was considered crucial in obtaining frank responses. For this reason unfortunately, it was impossible to pair, for each respondent, the results of the questionnaire and those of the PF test (II: 3) which was administered on the same day. However, the ability group to which each respondent belonged was known.

5.2.4 The sample

Actual sampling was beyond our control since the questionnaire was administered to PF teachers who had been sent for training by their school. Each of the 80 Corporation schools, where approximately 450 primary teachers were involved in PF teaching, had selected one teacher for training (I: 3.2.4 - 2). Nothing is known of the manner in which each teacher was selected.

Twenty-three trainees out of a total of 80 were absent when the questionnaire was given. It should be noted in that respect that the number of trainees attending had dwindled over the months. Some of the teachers who stopped attending may have done so because their attitudes both to training and teaching were particularly negative. If this were the case, our final sample of 57 teachers would contain some bias and results based on it would tend to show the teachers as having more favourable attitudes towards French teaching than results based on the original number of trainees. Factual information would not be

affected.

5.2.5 Data analysis

Coding

The first step in the analysis of the data was to submit all the questions to a process of coding, i.e. to organise the data into classes and to assign a number to each class. In designing coding frames for the questionnaire under study it was necessary to distinguish between simple coding operations for precoded questions, e.g. questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and qualitative coding for unstructured data like open questions, e.g. questions 10, 11, 12, 42.

In question 39, which is an example of a precoded question the respondents were given a choice of six answers. When analysing the data the following codes were assigned to the responses

1 - hostile
2 - reluctant
3 - indifferent
4 - willing to try
5 - enthusiastic

Possibility no. 6, "any other feeling", was discounted as its frequency was null.

The quantification of the unstructured data raised many more problems. For instance, a 5-point scale was tentatively set up in designing the coding frame for question 42 which was worded as follows: "If you had the chance to tell the person who introduced the French teaching scheme into Edinburgh what you thought of it, you might have

said ...". However, by imposing a set of 5 categories on a varied set of responses some answers had to be forced into categories. Finally, a dichotomous coding frame was chosen.

When a cut-off point had to be fixed various coding combinations were experimented with and most items were turned into dichotomies.

Computer analysis

After this first stage in the analysis, the data was transferred to punch cards then computed on an IBM 360/50, using its S.P.S.S. programme.[1] The list of variables computed is given in Appendix C2.[2]

5.3 Results: state description

Computer analysis yielded a number of tabulations which were used to provide a state description of the population, i.e. to give information on the values obtained by the trainees on the following variables: ability in the target language, motivation in being trained and their age.

5.3.1 Ability in the language

The ability variable under study is composed of three different elements (5.2.1). The first of those elements - teachers' actual performance on entry to the course - will not be dealt with here, since it was investigated by a different method (II: 3.3.1).

The second element of the ability variable concerned the teachers' previous experience of the language.

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1 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

2 Only a fraction of all the questions and tabulations have been used in the final report. Oppenheim (1966: 254) has pointed out the inevitability of this kind of "wastage" mainly in pilot studies. He sets at less than 5% the tabulations that are eventually published. This can be due to a variety of reasons but it is especially true when the results are negative or do not yield the information which was sought. A list of the unused data is also given in Appendix C2.

(i) Question 36 a: (see Questionnaire in Appendix C1)

Academic qualifications

Academic qualifications in French	No.	%
O-level	10	17.5
H-level	32	56.1
1 year at University	6	10.5
2 years at University	9	15.8
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question showed that 4 categories were present among the subjects. These categories ranged from O-level qualifications to 2 years of French at University level. A little more than half the subjects had a H-level qualification while the number of those with an O-level qualification roughly equalled those with 2 years of French at University. Contrary to the findings of the S.E.D. inquiry (I: 3.4.1) all the teachers had some qualifications in French.

(ii) Question 36 b: training in French

Number of prior courses attended	No.	%
None	35	61.4
1	14	24.6
2	6	10.5
3	2	3.5
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question showed that nearly two-thirds of the teachers had never attended a training course prior to the 1967-68 course at the French Institute. A little more than a third of the teachers had attended from one to three courses either at the French Institute or at Moray House

college of education. Among them, eight teachers had attended courses in France or had had intensive practice in the country, one of them was bilingual.

(iii) Question 2: personal acquaintanceship with France

Frequency and intensity of acquaintanceship with France	No.	%
None	14	24.6
Slight and occasional	29	50.9
More important and repeated	9	15.8
Deep and prolonged	5	8.8
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question showed that one could establish 4 broad categories of teachers. Some teachers had had no contact at all. Others had had occasional contacts whether because they had pen-friends, or had been on short holidays in France. A third category was formed that showed fairly varied and repeated contacts either because the teachers had French friends, or often read in French or had spent many holidays in France. The last category included those with intensive contacts in the sense that the subjects in that category had worked in France or stayed in the country for long periods at a stretch or even had one French parent.

(iv) Question 38: PF teaching experience

Number of years' experience in French teaching	No.	%
None	1	1.8
1	35	61.4
2	15	26.3
3	5	8.8
More than 3	1	1.8
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question revealed that only one teacher was being trained who had not yet started teaching. Nearly two-thirds of the subjects were in their first year of teaching. Two other categories consisted of teachers who had taught French for 2 and 3 years respectively. Only one teacher had had more than 3 years' experience.

c) The third element included in our analysis of the ability variable (5.2.3) is the teachers' potential ability in using the language for training or teaching purposes.

This element was measured, first of all, by the teachers' answers to 4 questions (i to iv) related to their teaching duties and secondly by 2 questions related to the in-service training course (v and vi).

(i) Question 34: self-rating of the teachers' ability in French when they started teaching

Knowledge of French at the beginning	No.	%
Inadequate	18	34
Barely sufficient	8	15.1
Sufficient	27	50.9

Analysis of this question revealed that, when they were asked to teach French, half the teachers considered their French to be sufficient to carry out the instruction while one-third thought it was inadequate. The teachers in the remaining category believed their French to be barely sufficient to teach.

(ii) Question 33: self-rating in relation to the pupils

	No.	%
Teachers ahead of pupils	36	63.2
Teachers learning along with their pupils	20	35.1
No answer	1	1.8
Total	57	100

Analysis of question 33 showed that the majority of the teachers felt they were ahead of their pupils. This figure corresponds to the number of teachers who declared that their French was sufficient or barely sufficient (cf. question 34).

(iii) Question 6: Teaching difficulty (A)

	No.	%
No difficulty	13	23
Can manage	36	62
Very difficult	4	7.5
No answer	4	7.5
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question as to whether teachers found it difficult to teach French or not showed that a quarter of them had no problems at all, two-thirds declared that they could manage while 7.5% found it difficult (7.5% did not answer). Since the design of the question did not allow for further comments, it is not known unfortunately what role the teachers' ability in French played in the given answers.

(iv) Question 31: Teaching difficulty (B)

Difficulty in teaching	No.	%
Yes	14	25.5
No	41	74.5
No answer	2	
Total	57	100

Question 31 which replicated Question 6 but was worded in simpler terms, yielded more clear-cut answers that did not really correspond with those obtained on Question 6. This lack of correspondence seems to indicate that the terms of our question were not specific enough and that, while we expected French to be the only parameter considered in relation to teaching difficulty, various others had been taken into consideration in the teachers' answers.

(v) Question 19: Aural comprehension of grammatical explanations during the course

	No.	%
French is no barrier	32	57.1
Teachers not confident	16	28.6
Lost	8	14.3
Total	56	100

Analysis of Question 19 showed that, when a grammatical point was explained to them in French, more than half the teachers had no difficulty in understanding it, while a quarter of them were not sure that they had got the point right. The remaining 14% declared that they were completely lost. It is worth noting that the analysis of those answers underlined a difference in the training methods used. While 75% of those who had no aural comprehension difficulty belonged to the groups in which grammar had been specially adapted to the teachers' needs (II: 1.2.3), 81% of those who had difficulty belonged to the groups where grammar was traditionally presented.

(vi) Question 21: Teachers' feelings when speaking French in front of their colleagues

	No.	%
Not embarrassed	13	22.8
Shyness overcome	12	21.1
Bothered or tongue-tied	25	43.9
Other feeling or no answer	7	12.3
Total	57	100

Question 21 was the last question designed to measure the teachers' potential ability through their own feelings of the quality of their French. The last category included a majority of teachers (43.9%) who always found it difficult or even felt tongue-tied when they had to speak up in French.

5.3.2 Motivation

The three elements which have been operationally defined in 5.2.1 as composing the motivational variables will be treated separately in this section.

Teachers' attitude towards their own involvement in the PF programme

this was measured by 2 Questions,

(i) Question 39: Teachers' feelings when they were asked to teach French

	No.	%
Enthusiastic	16	28.1
Willing to try	29	50.9
Indifferent	1	1.8
Hostile or reluctant	10	17.6
Any other feelings	1	1.8
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question revealed four categories of feelings. Two categories included teachers with clear-cut feelings (either enthusiastic or hostile). Half the teachers placed themselves in the category of those who were

willing to try. It is clear from a comparison of those results with others that the category of those who were ready to show good will included a wide range of feelings towards the PF scheme in general.

(ii) Question 45: freedom of participation

Amount of freedom given to the teacher concerning their involvement in teaching	No.	%
Free choice	19	33.3
Restricted choice	14	24.6
No choice	24	42.1
Total	57	100

A third of the teachers only were entirely free to participate in the PF programme. The number of those who declared they had no choice at all (24) approximately corresponds to the number of teachers who did not agree with the PF programme.

Teachers' attitude towards the PF programme

The second element considered as being part of the motivational variable under study concerned the teachers' attitude towards the introduction of French in the curriculum. It is not certain that the attitude statements obtained with regards to this element are independent from those obtained by Question 39 and 45 described in the above paragraph although the questionnaire designer intended them to be so. The emotional component of attitude to French in primary schools is believed to be so strong that the chances are it will colour all the statements associated with the topic. The meaningfulness of the statements obtained about the

French programme might have been enhanced by comparing them with those of teachers not personally involved, however this was not possible at the time.

(i) Question 42: teachers' opinions of the PF programme

	No.	%
Favourable	15	26.3
Unfavourable	26	45.6
No answer or miscellaneous	16	28.1
Total	57	100

This question was open. It invited the teachers to state what they would say if they had the chance to tell the introducer of the PF programme what they thought. The answers indicated that one-quarter of the teachers had a favourable opinion of the PF scheme while nearly half of them did not approve of it.

The number of no answers and miscellaneous answers which could not be coded was unusually high (28%). This may be an indication that the question was not adequately worded, it may also show that this was an embarrassing question and that many respondents were not ready to admit that they disapproved of the programme openly although they were prepared to answer closed questions containing a number of prepared categories.

Since, by imposing a dichotomous coding frame on the varied set of responses obtained, we inevitably lost information we shall give here some examples taken from the actual data, in order to define the meaning of each category.

Among the answers showing a favourable attitude the more representative ones lay emphasis on the necessity of having properly trained staff to make the programme worthwhile. Examples are as follows:

- An excellent idea, long overdue.
- I approve of the scheme but feel no teacher should be forced into taking the subject. Also no one should take French without a term or even a year's course, previously, to help them.
- It's a good idea. I feel that I would have been more confident when speaking French if I had learned the language when I was younger.
- Well done but improve communication with secondaries too many pupils had no chance to continue French, last year.
- Prepare us! We have to try to make it work.

Among the responses unfavourable towards the scheme, four different themes can be retained. The first of these is that primary teachers are already overworked, the second theme is that children are expected to do too much. The third theme is that some categories of children cannot benefit by learning French and finally that the programme has been inadequately prepared. Examples are as follows:

- Hastily entered scheme with marked lack of preparation and organisation plus arrogant attitude to already overburdened curriculum from which S.E.D. declares nothing else must be omitted.
- You started the scheme without having made adequate

preparations. This is to be seen in the constantly changing ideas and devices that we are subjected to in schools.

- That it is unrealistic to have teachers who have never visited France teaching the language to pupils who have no prospect of visiting it.
- How many children in Edinburgh Corporation schools will go to France and have to use French?
- The type of child I teach would benefit far more from a similar course in English.

(ii) Question 58: Teachers' opinions on the role of French in future primary curriculum

	No.	%
Keep it permanently	16	29.6
Keep it as an experiment	36	66.7
Discontinue French	2	3.7
Not sure	3	5.5
Total	57	100

Question 58 offered four prepared categories. More than two-thirds of the teachers stated that they would like French to continue as an experiment, roughly a quarter said they wanted to keep it permanently. It is quite striking that only 2 teachers thought that they would like to see French discontinued if one notes that 26 (45%) teachers were classified in Question 42 as being unfavourable to the French programme. The data does not offer any clear-cut explanation for this apparent discrepancy. It is only suggested here that disapproval of the French programme may be more related to the manner in which it was implemented

in Edinburgh than to the general principle of language teaching at primary level. On the other hand, attitude questions are so sensitive to wording that this may account for the discrepancy of the results obtained on those two questions.

(iii) Question 54: teachers' opinion on their pupils' reaction to the French class

	No.	%
Positive	40	71
Negative	10	16
Variable	7	13
Total	57	100

Analysis of this open question resulted in 3 categories: a large majority of the teachers felt that their pupils enjoyed the French class. Some of them also stated that the girls enjoyed it more than the boys. Only 16% of the teachers felt that their pupils were bored or blasé.

(iv) Question 43: teachers' opinion on the effect of French on other subjects

	No.	%
Causes damage	10	17.5
Causes no damage	32	56.1
Do not know	15	26.3
Total	57	100

Analysis of this question showed that more than half the teachers thought that French did not cause any serious damage to the other subjects while 17.5% thought it did.

(v) Question 44: Teachers' opinion on the contribution of French

	No.	%
French contributes something on the whole	38	71.7
French contributes nothing in particular	12	22.6
French has a negative influence	3	5.7
Do not know	4	-
Total	57	100

A large majority of teachers (71.7%), regardless of their personal attitudes, stated that French contributed something positive while only 5.7% thought it had a negative influence. The question was unfortunately not designed to give the respondents a chance to define their answers further.

(vi) Question 56: teachers' opinion on pupils' selection

	No.	%
No selection	38	66.6
Selection	19	33.3
Total	57	100

A majority of teachers (66.6%), regardless of their own opinion of the PF programme, agreed with the non-selection of children.

Teachers' reaction to training

Three distinct questions sought the teachers' opinions about the value of the PF training that they had received. Since, as was noted earlier (II: 1.1.1), two different teacher-trainers were in charge of training and used different methods, the responses for each group of trainees will be reported separately. The group of which the author of this study was in charge will be referred to as the experimental group and the other one as the VIF group because it made extensive use of the CREDIF course entitled 'Voix et Images

de France', (1958).

(i) Question 3: trainees' overall opinion of the training course

	Groups		
	VIF No. of trainees	Experimental No.of trainees	
Course was very worthwhile	2 (3.5)[1]	4 (7)	6 (10.5)
Worthwhile	15 (26.3)	18 (31.6)	33 (57.9)
Disappointing	7 (12.3)	8 (14)	15 (26.3)
Useless	3 (5.3)	0 (0)	3 (5.3)
	27 (47.4)	30 (52.6)	57 100

Analysis of this question did not reveal much difference between the two groups and this difference was found to be not significant at the 0.05 level of probability.

(ii) Question 4: trainees' opinions of the language content of the course

Category of reply	Groups		
	VIF	Experimental	Row Total
Content is right	6 (22.2)[1] (27.3)[2]	16 (53.3) (72.7)	22 100
Content is not relevant	19 (70.3) (70.4)	8 (26.6) (29.6)	27 100
Content is too close to children's textbook	2 (7.5) (25)	6 (20) (75)	8 100
Column Total	27 100	30 100	57 100

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[1] Figures in parenthesis are percentages of total number of trainees.

[2] The first figures in parenthesis refer to percentages of trainees within each group (column) and the second figures to percentages of trainees within each category (row).

This question was intended to yield information on the teachers' opinions of the language content of the course. Statistical analysis showed that there was a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) in the responses of the two groups. There was a marked tendency for the trainees in the experimental group to be satisfied with the content of the course

The majority of trainees (70.3%) in the VIF group thought that the course was not relevant to their needs.

(iii) Question 5: trainees' appreciation of the adequacy of the course for them

Category of Reply	Groups		
	VIF	Experimental	Row Total
Course is adequate	12 (44) (35.3)	22 (73) (64.7)	34 100
Course is too difficult	14 (52) (73.7)	5 (16) (26.3)	10 100
Course is too easy	1 (4) (25)	3 (10) (75)	4 100
Column Total	27 100	30 100	57 100

Here again, statistical analysis showed that the two groups were significantly different ($p = 0.01$). In the experimental group 73% of the trainees were satisfied with the level of the course whereas, in the VIF group only 44% had that feeling. More than half the trainees in the VIF group found the course too difficult. In the experimental group there was no definite tendency, i.e. 10% of the trainees found the course too easy and 16% too difficult.

Individual differences

We indicated early in this chapter (5.2.1) that age was finally the only characteristic that could be reasonably retained in our study of individual differences. Analysis of the replies showed that the majority of the trainees were under 40 and 40.4% of them were under 30.

	No.	%
20-29	23	40.4
30-39	14	24.6
40-49	9	15.8
50 +	11	19.3
Total	57	100

5.4 Results: process description

The contingency tables obtained by computer analysis allowed us to test the hypotheses we had formulated (5.1.6) and to explore some of the dimensions of the problem with which the research attempted to deal.

5.4.1 Ability in the language

(i) Academic qualifications (variable 004 - Question 36a) and group ability (variable 002 - Appendix C3, table 1)

The data shows an association ($p = 0.005$) between the teachers' academic qualifications and the group in which they had been classified.[1] However, an examination of table 1 (Appendix C3) shows that the extreme cases influence the total results, i.e. teachers with an O-level qualification are more likely to be in a poor ability group than are teachers with 2 years' French at University. The central cases indicate that the observed values are not very different from the expected values, i.e. teachers with a Higher-level French or,

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[1] The trainees who took part in the first extensive training course had been classified into 4 groups (very good, good, poor, very poor) according to their results on the MLA listening test (II: 3.2.1).

to a minor degree, those with one-year French at University can be present in any of the 4 groups as is shown in Table A.

Table A Percentage of teachers with a Higher level or one year at University in each ability group

	Very poor	Poor	Good	Very Good
H-level	45%	63%	68%	47%
University (one year)	0	10%	12%	15%

(ii) Group ability (variable 002) and contacts with France (variable 006 - Question 1) (Appendix C3, table 2)

The data does not indicate any significant relationship between the 2 variables. Interpretation of the contingency table suggests, however, that whereas occasional contacts are of no value, there is a certain amount of association for those teachers who have had frequent and prolonged contacts with France.

Moreover, the amount and frequency of the teachers' contact with France was found to be unrelated to their academic qualifications.

(iii) Group ability (variable 002) and prior training (variable 005 - Question 36b) (Appendix C3, table 3)

The data showed a relationship between these two variables ($p = 0.03$). This association mainly results from the teachers in the very poor group, none of whom had ever been trained. However, this association was weak for the teachers in the very good and good groups since 75% and 30%, respectively, had not previously attended a course.

5.4.2 Attitude to PF teaching

(i) Teachers' feelings about their personal involvement (variable 010 - Question 39) and group ability (variable 002) (Appendix C3, table 4)

We had hypothesized that a good knowledge of the language might be linked with a favourable attitude towards teaching it. This hypothesis was not supported by the data ($p = 0.15$). Nevertheless, this absence of correlation seems to be mainly due to the large number of teachers ($N = 29$) who held neutral feelings. Some relationship between these two variables emerges from a study of the individual cells (table A): (1) slightly more teachers who had a good command of French were enthusiastic about teaching the language than would have been expected by chance; (2) conversely, there were fewer enthusiastic teachers than expected in the poor and very poor ability group.

Table B Teachers' feelings about their personal involvement

	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Row total
Poor and very poor group	(3.8)	(11.2)	(6.16)	
	5+	13+	4-	22
Good and very good group	(6.1)	(17.74)	(9.82)	
	5-	16-	12+	33
Column total	10	29	16	55

(N.B. The figures between brackets are the expected frequencies. The plus or minus signs indicate the direction of the observed frequencies.)

(ii) Teachers' attitude to the PF programme (variable 011 - Question 42) and group ability (variable 002) (Appendix C3, table 5)

No association was found between teachers' ability in

French and their attitude towards the PF programme. In fact, detailed examination of the individual cells shows that among those teachers who approved of the PF programme 53% belonged to the poor or very poor ability group and that 65% of those who did not approve of it belonged to the good or very good group. It is noteworthy that 65% of those who declared themselves to be hostile to the PF programme were still willing to try and teach French.

(iii) Teachers' attitude to PF programme, own involvement (variable 011 and variable 010) and teachers' academic qualifications (variable 004)

These variables showed no relationship.

(iv) Teachers' attitude to PF programme, own involvement (variable 011 and variable 010) and number of years of PF teaching experience (variable 007 - Question 38)

Teaching experience did not appear to influence the teachers' original feelings about either variable.[1]

(v) Teachers' attitude towards own involvement (variable 010) and teaching difficulty (variable 015 - Question 31) (Appendix C3, table 6)

No association was found between these two variables. However, an examination of the individual cells reveals that 64% of those teachers who found PF teaching difficult were against the PF programme as against 14% in the same category who were favourable to the programme.

(vi) Teachers' attitude towards own involvement (variable 011) and their opinion on the effect of French teaching on the other subjects (variable 028 - Question 43) (Appendix C3, Table 7)

There was no association between these two variables. However, here again an examination of the cells suggests

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[1] However, this class of results should be taken with caution since 61% of all the teachers were only in their first year of PF teaching.

that this result is due to the great number of no responses to Question 43 (26.3%). In fact, 48% of the teachers who thought French did not affect the other subjects were among those teachers who had willingly accepted to participate in the programme.

(vii) Teachers' attitude towards own involvement (variable 011) and opinion on contribution of French (variable 029 - Question 44)

No relationship was found between these two variables.

5.5 Summary

This pilot investigation fulfilled its aims as regards the state description of the population.

(1) It was found that the trainees widely varied in their previous experience in learning and teaching the language. Many of them had been in France. Half the trainees felt their knowledge of French was adequate for PF teaching and slightly more declared that they were ahead of their pupils. Relatively few experienced difficulty in teaching.

(2) As predicted in our working hypothesis, the trainees displayed a variety of attitudes about their own involvement and the PF programme. The investigation provided evidence that there was a core of enthusiastic teachers ready to participate in the programme fully. On the other hand, it showed that an important group was in disagreement with PF teaching, mainly on the grounds that they could not see any benefit in it for their pupils. Confirming our hypothesis, many teachers declared that they had had little or no choice in participating in the PF scheme.

(3) As regards teacher-training, the questionnaire showed that the trainees were more satisfied with a course specially designed for their needs than with a general language course.

The pilot investigation did not produce all the results we expected as regards the interaction of a number of variables.

(1) Our hypothesis according to which knowledge of French would be related to a favourable attitude to PF teaching has not been supported. The investigation has failed to isolate the components of teacher attitude to PF teaching. The results we obtained lead us to think that further study should be carried out to investigate whether the teachers' attitude can be related to (i) their own education, (ii) their educational and social belief, (iii) the type of teachers they are and (iv) the type of pupils they are teaching.

(2) Academic qualifications in French have proved to give a broad indication of the teachers' standard in French for those teachers who have an O-level or are at University level. However, when the qualifications are at an intermediate level (Higher or one-year university), they are not sufficiently reliable as a basis for recruitment or training.

PART III

THE EXPERIMENTAL TRAINING COURSE

CHAPTER 1

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

1.0 Introduction

The background information collected during the preliminary study enabled us to formulate the objectives on which the training course is based. These objectives are presented here with some details because two factors (the limited number of hours in a course and the teachers' specific needs) impose considerable restrictions on training which has to be constantly purposeful. Hence, the necessity for the training objectives to be fully defined.

1.1 The language objective

The overall language objective is to ensure that the teachers have a sufficiently good command of the language relevant to Primary French (II: 2). In connection with this statement, the language objectives are restricted to the oral skills with a clear predominance of the productive over the receptive.

1.1.1 Productive skills

Within the productive skills we recognise two aspects: oral accuracy and oral fluency.

Oral accuracy can best be defined as the unhesitating and correct use of a specific area of the syllabus of the training course, i.e. that area coincides in our case with the grammatical content of the Nuffield Primary Course and with some of the language used for normal classroom routine. Oral accuracy defined in this way will be sought as the absolute minimum that can be required of a PF teacher and it represents a high priority objective of PF training.[1] No teacher should be allowed to teach who has not obtained a reasonable command of that specific area of language.

Although we have ascertained (II: 3.3.2) that a number of trainees cannot reach that minimum level of proficiency, we believe that it is, generally speaking, a realistic aim to set ourselves in PF training. We hold this view because in PF teaching, as we have suggested earlier (II: 1.3.3), the process involved in speech production seems of an elementary nature. The teacher's oral performance is 'stimulus-bound', i.e. it is narrowly guided by the textbook, the tape-recorder, the visual materials and, of course, by the limited knowledge of his pupils. The mechanisms involving intentional and semantic choice at a cognitive level (Corder, 1966; Wales and Marshall, 1966) intervene little in PF teaching when teaching is limited to the text-book. Therefore, our objectives of oral accuracy will aim

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[1] Oral accuracy is sought during the 'practice' stage of our training course and the grammatical objectives are clearly listed in the trainer's manual (Appendix D).

at the organisational level, i.e. the formal relationship between categories, and the phonological level.

Oral fluency can best be defined as the ability to handle a variety of classroom situations with an immediate and relevant response in French.

The development of oral fluency which falls within our teaching objectives is naturally restricted to that language which has been selected (II: 2) as being relevant to classroom language and situations. Here, we are no longer concerned as in the previous section with 'stimulus-bound' language but with genuine creation of language in response to a real event arising in the school. In this case, all the performance mechanisms mentioned above must be exercised at once and in full: the teacher must select language according to his intentions and the context of situation. It is thus necessary to ensure that the teachers are able to operate these mechanisms "smoothly and rapidly even if this means inviting mistakes" (Clark, 1967).

There is evidence (Burstall, 1968) that the teacher's fluency is positively related to the pupils' fluency in French. This suggests that developing fluency is desirable both for the children's and the teacher's self-confidence. Moreover, teacher-fluency is a necessity if French is to be integrated in the whole primary school situation. However, under present conditions, many teachers fall short of that ideal standard of competence. Therefore, it seems more realistic in PF training to seek to develop oral fluency only in those cases where the trainees have reached a

satisfactory level of oral accuracy as judged by testing or observation.[1]

1.1.2 Receptive skills

Listening performance

In the specific context with which we are concerned, this can be defined as the ability to understand

- the instructions by the teacher-trainer in order to carry out language exercises in the classroom or in the laboratory without the use of English or the interference of additional explanations.
- classroom-routine language involving the use of polite expressions that are common between adults like, for instance, "Cela vous ennuierait d'aller chercher une chaise?" or language referring to a past, present or future situation as, for instance, "Il n'y aura pas classe la semaine prochaine".
- French utterances of a normal length as spoken carefully by a native-speaker about simple topics. This kind of micro-conversations may arise during classes but mainly during breaks.

These objectives are listed in a decreasing order of priority. The first is basic to the course, the last may be reached only by a minority of trainees.

It should be stressed that these objectives are merely a means of achieving more effective training. They cannot be considered as part of the language skills necessary for PF teaching. The reasons for holding this view were

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[1] In practical terms, it means that it is wasteful to carry out the exercises suggested in the 'exploitation' stage of our training course if the trainees do not perform satisfactorily the basic drills of the 'practice' stage.

discussed in a previous chapter (II: 1.3.3) and we shall only briefly recall the unusual status of aural understanding in PF teaching. It seems evident that at Primary level teaching, communication in the foreign language is unilateral in the sense that there is rarely any spontaneous and original performance on the pupils' side[1] that involves the teacher's full listening mechanisms for interpretation of the message. Our listening performance objectives are thus related to the trainees as learners of French and not as teachers of that language.

Phonological discrimination

Phonological discrimination in our context is best defined as the ability to hear correctly the phonemes and the intonation patterns of French in two limited cases: first, in the recorded material provided with the Primary French Course and second, in the children's responses in French.

A certain number of points arise in connection with our brief definition of discrimination.

First, our definition refers to the discrimination of segmental and suprasegmental features taken in quasi-isolation from utterances produced at a lower speed than normal. Recognition of features from connected speech as spoken naturally by native speakers cannot be set out as a realistic objective in a short course of this nature. It is hoped that with some groups this elementary training in discrimination will work as an introduction to the full exercise of language perception.

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1 As we have already pointed out (note in II: 3.2.2) the amount of information passed from the pupils to the PF teacher is minimal because normally the information transmitted is already known by the teacher or because, in terms of information theory, the number of alternatives in the message transmitted is either reduced or non-existent (see also II: 1.3.3 p. 142).

Second, phonological discrimination is purely auditory and does not involve any interpretation of the message at an organisational or conceptual level. In classroom practice, the comprehension load of any utterance is reduced to nil by the written version of all the recorded material or by the high degree of expectancy in the children's responses. Phonological discrimination only involves partial receptive performance and thus seems to be closely related to the hearer's competence, i.e. to his knowledge of the phonemic rules. If hearing a sentence correctly can be related to some understanding of its structure (Thorne, 1968), it is reasonable to think that hearing segmental and suprasegmental features correctly is related to some conscious or unconscious knowledge of the phonemic system of the language. It is this system we intend to teach the trainees in the belief that it will help them to recognise it in actual performance. Thus, to give an example, the teachers have been consistently unable to recognise the presence of 'e' mute in the recorded Nuffield materials. This means that, although the voice on the tape would say [l'balö dla fij] the teacher would repeat [le balô de la fij]. Experience has shown that this was not due to performance difficulty but to interference from the written form of the language that prevented the trainees from hearing correctly. Knowledge of the rule and some practical exercises led to recognition of 'e' mute and accurate imitation within the limited field of the recorded material

which remains our immediate objective in phonological discrimination.

1.2 The behavioural objectives

The overall behavioural objectives will normally derive from the development of the language objectives. They are intended to lead the teachers

- to use French with more confidence during the course with an expected carry-over to their own classroom. Lack of self-confidence and not lack of ability, is often the reason why the teachers do not use French.
- to consider and use French as a means of communication about real life and not as a school subject.
- to raise or keep up their interest in the language. The reason why this objective is of particular importance is two-fold. In terms of learning, there is considerable evidence that intrinsic interest in the subject is an important factor. Also, interest in the language will condition the trainees' desire to further their acquaintance with the language after the course has finished, by either reading, listening to the radio or holidaying in a French-speaking country. In terms of teaching, the teacher's own interest in the language is thought to have an important effect on the children's level of achievement in French (Burstall, 1968).
- to enlarge their knowledge of France and the French within the scope of what can be useful in the school.

These objectives aim at the trainees both as learners and as teachers of the language.

1.3 The pedagogical objectives

Although the trainees are all trained primary teachers, they are not trained in language teaching. Therefore we believe that PF training should go beyond the mere teaching of French and include a certain amount of professional training.[1]

Although no overt methodology teaching is included in the course - this being done as a rule by the Local Education Authorities' Language Advisor - a set of pedagogical objectives underlies much of the method and techniques adopted in the course. These objectives can be defined as an attempt

- to lead the trainees away from traditional language teaching such as they may have experienced at school.
- to present them with an active experience of an approach to language appropriate to primary teaching. This objective follows naturally from the one mentioned above.
- to give them an awareness of the grammatical and phonological system of French within the scope of their teaching needs.
- to help them to appreciate the materials they use in a critical manner so as to feel confident enough not to follow the textbook slavishly when they realise it does not fulfil their pupils' needs.

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[1] This view is supported here again by Burstall's findings (1968), according to which "neither the teacher's original training and qualifications nor the length and type of his previous teaching experience appear to be associated with the rated fluency in French of his class. This paper also suggests that "specific training ..... outweighs the teacher's original training and qualifications as a factor determining the level of achievement in the classroom".

- to train them to produce simple supplementary material such as drills and games.
- to give them some experience of group work.

1.4 Conclusion

Our training objectives are characterized by their high specificity, their dual purpose since the trainees are both learners and teachers, and their different levels of priority according to the training groups.

CHAPTER 2

COURSE MATERIALS

2.1 Overall description

The training course is contained in 3 manuals and a set of audio-visual materials. Two of the manuals are for the sole use of the trainer and the third one is intended for the trainees. The totality of the course is in French.

2.1.1 The trainer's class manual

This is the corner-stone of the whole course. It is organised into 10 units of work (Appendix D)[1] all of which have the same lay-out as described here.

a) An index of the language content which gives the details of the grammatical and intentional objectives as well as a list of the lexical items present in the unit.

b) An introduction to the whole unit. This corresponds to what was called the 'retrieval' stage in a previous chapter (II: 1.3.1). The manual indicates the visual materials required (figurines and flannelgraph) and

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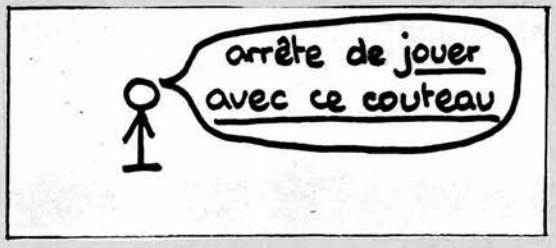
[1] Only 4 units of work are presented in Appendix D.

specifies their use. A list of the expected language items that such a procedure should elicit is provided.

c) A conversation with questions which is placed at the beginning of the practice stage. The conversation is also part of the recorded materials.

d) Drills and exercises which also belong to the practice stage. They are presented in such a way as to give immediate information on the visuals required for each drill and the type of pattern practised. The following set of conventions has been devised to ensure ease and rapidity of implementation.

(i) The pattern to be drilled is completely written out, e.g. II.2.8[1]



(ii) The language items to be changed in the structure are underlined (see i)

(iii) The necessary figurines are listed at the beginning of each drill. Those that have to be paired on the flannelgraph are indicated as follows:

e.g. III.3.2 tomates/salade
gâteau /thé

(iv) The number of participants and their role for each sequence of stimulus-response are indicated visually

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[1] II.2.8 should be read as follows: second unit of work, second grammatical objective, drill no. 8.

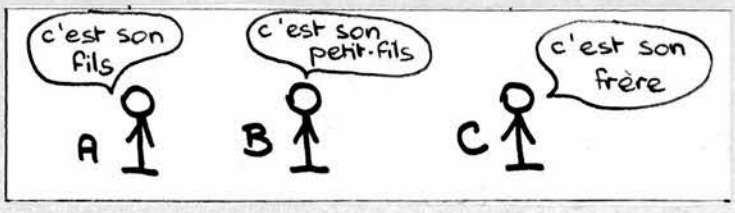
- The trainer is not represented at all when, once the pattern has been set, he merely changes the figurines without providing any language stimuli.
- When he does provide the language stimuli, he is depicted as follows:

  e.g. I.3.1

- When only one trainee is expected to participate in each response, this is indicated as follows: III.3.1

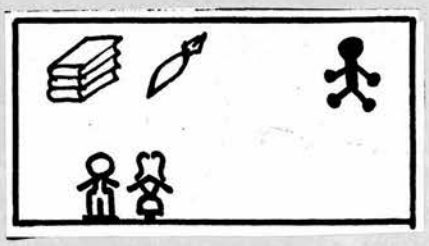
- When two or more trainees are to participate in each set of responses, this is shown as follows:

  e.g. I.3.1

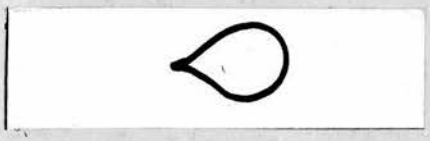


(v) The positioning of the figurines representing the background situation to the drill is indicated by a picture:

e.g. III.2.2

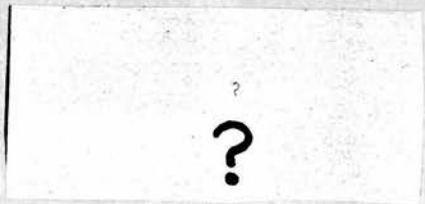


(vi) A set of symbols are used to elicit specific grammatical forms or to make the situation clearer. These are intended to reduce the explanations that the trainer has to give.

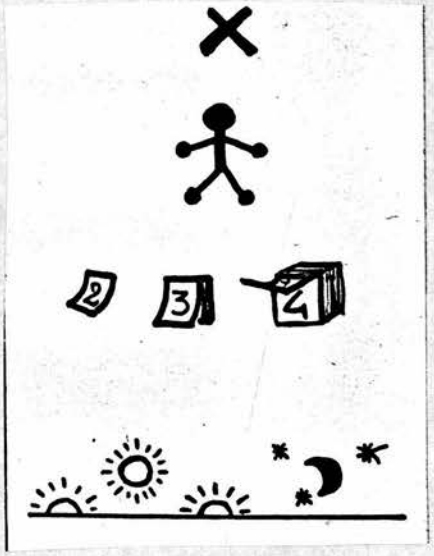


- A 'bulle' is used to show who is talking in a particular situation.

- An arrow is used to show in which direction an action is directed, for instance, it will elicit "mettre" (un vêtement) or "enlever" according to its direction. Or, it will show that something is given to somebody, etc.



- A question mark specifies who is questioning about what.



- A cross indicates a negative answer.
- A silhouette will stand for anybody, e.g. Jean, la maîtresse, les enfants, quelqu'un, etc.
- Three calendar leaves indicate whether the situation is taking place in the past, present or future.[1]
- Half a sun indicates whether it is morning or evening.
- The sun and the moon indicate whether it is day or night.

e) A series of exercises, games, problems, etc. .... which belong to the exploitation stage.

f) A series of short projects for group work. This is the last stage in each unit of work.

2.1.2 The language laboratory manual

It is intended for the sole use of the trainer and contains the text of all the recorded materials.

a) The conversations with gaps allowing for repetition.

b) Drills and exercises at two different levels of ability in the language. The grammatical structures practised in the language laboratory are similar in aim to those practised in the classroom.[2]

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1 This symbol was first used by the B.E.L.C. (Bureau d'Etudes et de Liaison pour l'Enseignement du Français) in their course 'Frère Jacques' (1967).

2 The drills and exercises often refer to pictures that are to be found in the trainees' handbook.

c) A series of 15 programmed lessons on segmental and suprasegmental features which can be used at any time during the course.

2.1.3 The trainees' handbook

Each part of the handbook corresponds to one unit of work and includes:

a) The incomplete text of the conversation which has been presented in the class or in the language laboratory. The text is to be completed either during training hours or at home.

b) Class exercises.

c) Pictures or notes for use in the language laboratory. They are grouped in tables with references for the work to be carried out, e.g. in unit 2, TABLEAU I (exercises, 1, 3, 5, 7 - 1°). This should be understood to mean: use table I for the exercises 1, 3, 5 and 7 at first degree level.

d) The notes and exercises required for the programmed lessons in the laboratory are given independently at the end of the handbook.

2.1.4 Audio-visual materials

a) A set of visual materials which includes a flannelgraph and figurines. The flannelgraph is a 100 x 150 cm. piece of navy-blue material. The figurines are white on navy-blue background.[1]

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[1] Some of them have been specially made for the training course. Others have been taken from a French-produced course for children entitled 'Frère Jacques' (Hachette, 1967) and a set of visuals for flannelgraph produced by the B.E.L.C.

b) A set of tapes containing the text of the conversations presented in the practice stage, the language laboratory drills and the programmed lessons.

2.2 Structure of a unit

Each of the four teaching stages in every unit of work has its own characteristics and is intended to fulfil a specific set of objectives as we outline in this section.

2.2.1 'Retrieval' or Introductory stage

Aims

The main aim of this stage is to lead the trainees to 'retrieve' and reactivate whatever language they learnt prior to the course (II: 1.3.1). There is no conscious learning involved in this stage. Some of the behavioural objectives should also be fulfilled in this stage which encourages the trainees to use French with more confidence. This is achieved by showing them that they can express themselves freely in the language without constant prompting, a fact that most of them would deny prior to trying. As regards our pedagogical objectives, this stage is intended to attract the trainees' attention to the language content of the unit of work that this stage introduces.

This stage is certainly essential for the trainer to assess precisely each trainee's performance as regards the quality and the quantity of the language produced.

Description

This consists of a context of situation visually presented to the trainees on the flannelgraph. The trainees

are briefly told what the situation is concerned with and are asked to express themselves freely about it.

Technical procedure

The unusual aspect of the 'retrieval' stage may lead to some difficulty. Therefore, we suggest here a technical procedure which has been shown to facilitate the implementation of the stage.

The trainer's[1] role is best seen as one of observant whose participation should be as reduced as possible. The trainees' role is to express themselves freely and communicate within the group. It has been repeatedly observed that the T.'s non-participation gradually leads the trainees to rely more and more on themselves to initiate language instead of waiting to be constantly prompted by the T.'s questions and suggestions.

The following procedure can be used:

1) The T. places the figurines on the flannelgraph[2] either before the class or at its beginning.

2) The trainees sit in a semi-circle round the Fg., as far as the classroom allows they should face one another.

3) The T. sits outside the circle, either behind it or in a corner in order to help the trainees forget about his presence.

4) The T. introduces the situation briefly as indicated in his manual and invites the group to say anything they like about it. Any leading introduction should be avoided but may become necessary in cases where the group does not

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[1] T. is used thereafter to refer to the trainer.

[2] Fg. is used thereafter to refer to the flannelgraph.

respond to the situation at all. A period of silence at the beginning of this session is quite normal while the trainees try to comprehend the situation and recall some relevant language.

5) While the conversation proceeds, the T. takes note of what is said; he checks the amount of expected language which is actually produced, and he notes the errors that fall within the language content of the unit studied. This information is essential to guide him in selective work through the unit.

Although the T. should not be prescriptive at that stage, i.e. he should not redress errors, he should, however, facilitate language production when he feels this is needed. He can provide a word or a verbal form when a trainee is obviously stuck. He can also answer any direct query. It is frequent for the trainees to insert an English word in the French sentence when they do not know the equivalent, e.g. a trainee said "la mère a rangé les provisions dans ... the cupboard; ... cupboard ... what is cupboard in French?" If no other member of the group provides the right word - they often do so - it is advisable to give an immediate equivalent.

6) When all the language that is likely to be produced on a particular situation seems to be exhausted, the T. can go over the situation again and guide the trainees by adequate questioning towards the production of the relevant language which may have been omitted. For instance, in unit 2 if the T. noted that the verb "enlever" - although

expected - had not been produced, he then asked the following set of questions:

T. (pointing to "la salle de bains") - Qu'est-ce que Paul fait après?

Trainees - Il s'habille (answer given in first trial)

T. - Et son pyjama?

Trainees - (expected answer) il l'enlève.

The T. gives the answer only if nobody else can provide it.

It is believed that the process of providing an answer only when the learners feel the need for it contributes to the process of adult learning in a way that is not met by the traditional presentation of language in a set text.

7) The errors which are relevant to the language content of the unit should be brought to the learners' attention during this guided reconstruction of the situation. It is good practice to ask the trainees to record their own errors in a note-book.

8) This guided version may be written down individually or in groups during the class. It can also be set as home work if - and this seems to be an essential condition - the T. is willing to correct that work.

9) Practice in using a language item correctly should not be deferred too long after correcting an error or a class of errors. The relevant drills and exercises should follow immediately the work already done on a single "situation".[1]

2.2.2 Practice stage

Aims

This stage is essentially intended to develop oral

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[1] It should be pointed out that this exercise in free-expression will vary widely according to the training groups. Some very poor groups may not have enough background in French to be able to benefit from such a technique.

accuracy in the use of a limited number of patterns. The language taught during that stage constitutes the basis of the training course and should be considered as a norm of minimal achievement to be reached by all teachers.

As regards our behavioural objectives, training in speech accuracy is expected to contribute to the trainees' self confidence in their own teaching. As regards our pedagogical objectives, this stage is generally intended to provide the trainees with a living experience of a relevant approach to PF teaching. It should also give them some awareness of the grammatical system of the language. From the practical point of view, it should train them to use the Fg.

Description

There are 3 parts in this stage.

a) Contextualisation of language. This consists of an episode in the life of a French family on a camping holiday. This episode is always presented in the form of a dialogue. In terms of sequencing, the place of this episode is essentially flexible since it can be presented at any convenient time during the practice stage. In cases where the unit has not been introduced by the 'retrieval' stage, the dialogue should precede any of the other stages.

The dialogue can be presented either in the classroom with the use of the Fg. or in the language laboratory.[1] Each episode is followed by a set of questions on the text - these are to be used in the classroom.

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[1] The choice of one or the other technique lies with the T. in accordance with his own preference and experience as well as with the reaction of individual groups. Memorization of patterns and phonological correction is facilitated by language laboratory presentation. Meaningfulness of the episode is more easily achieved in the classroom.

b) Classroom practice

This part is divided into a certain number of language objectives. This number varies between 5 and 10 for each unit. A set of graded drills and exercises attempt to teach each objective.

Most of the drills are visually prompted which allows for both linguistic stimuli and responses to be provided by the trainees themselves, thus creating a kind of micro-conversation, e.g. in III.3.2 one trainee asks: "Est-ce qu'ils apportent quelque chose a la maîtresse?" and another trainee answers "Oui, ils lui apportent un stylo et des livres". All the T. does is to place the appropriate figurines on the Fg.

The three main types of drills are substitution, mutation and transformation drills. However, the principle of flexibility set out as a necessity for the whole course (II: 1.4.3) can also be exercised at this point and the nature of the drills altered:

e.g. in II.3.2, a substitution drill elicits the responses - lève-toi ... lave-toi ... peigne-toi ... etc. but the trainer can, at any moment, introduce a syntactic change by placing alternatively one or two figurines on the Fg. This simple technical device will then elicit responses like - levez-vous ... lève-toi ... lave-toi ... lavez-vous ... etc.

The course materials include three main types of exercises. Type 1 is represented by the set of questions following each dialogue. Type 2 is of traditional design

as in I.5.1 in which only the last word of each sentence is provided. Type 3 is an expanded structural drill:

e.g. in II.7.2, the basic drill consists for the trainees playing the children's part in asking "est-ce que je peux prendre des ciseaux?/(or) aller chercher la brosse?/ (or) ouvrir la fenêtre?" etc. The trainees playing the teacher's part are expected to answer "si tu veux". This response can be expanded if required by asking the trainees to complete the set pattern with an utterance of their choice, e.g. "Si tu veux ... mais ne cours pas avec/ (or) mais dépêche-toi/ (or) mais ferme la porte ...".

b) Language laboratory practice

Practice in the language laboratory attempts to meet the need of two different categories of trainees and therefore the recorded material is divided into two different levels or degrees.

The first degree is intended for trainees who need practice at a relatively elementary morpho-phonological level and who cannot easily vary their answers according to the stimuli. The drills used at that level are mainly (but not exclusively) of a substitution type and constitute a revision of classroom practice.

The second degree in language laboratory work is intended for trainees who have little or no difficulty in performing orally at the elementary level dealt with in first degree work. Their production of individual patterns is both correct and rapid. Their specific requirements lie at a higher level of language where choice of lexis and

grammar is more complex while at the same time more demand is made on immediate retention of items. These various requirements are tentatively met by such devices as

- increasing the length of the semantic cues and responses.
- using fully or semi-contextual drills.
- introducing exercises that sometimes include open-ended questions. In this case, the trainees are requested either to call the trainer at the console or to write down their answers for classroom correction.

Drills and exercises at both levels make ample use of pictures for prompting.

2.2.3 Exploitation stage

Aims

This stage is essentially concerned with fluency. It sets out to ensure that the trainees can re-use the language acquired in the practice stage when the language is no longer practised for its own sake but is used in real meaningful communication involving the exercise of all the speech and listening mechanisms at one and the same time.

In terms of behavioural objectives, this stage is intended to train the Primary teachers to react rapidly in French to classroom situations.

As regards the trainer this stage provides an invaluable test of the real efficiency of the practice stage. It allows him to measure the amount of transfer from structural drills to real language use.

Description

This stage provides abundant materials for creating situations in which, as far as is technically possible, full language use is required, i.e. language that involves the exercise of all the language mechanisms at one and the same time. The various activities suggested include: role-playing, problem solving, story-building, oral comprehension, language games, etc.

2.2.4 'Group work' stage

Aims

This stage, like the preceding one, is also concerned with fluency but, unlike it, there is maximum freedom of language production since fluency is not restricted to the content of the unit of work.

In behavioural terms, this stage is intended to initiate simple investigations about France and the French. In pedagogical terms, it is intended to train the teachers to use the children's course with a critical mind and to produce supplementary material.

Description

A series of short projects are suggested which all require the trainees to organise themselves into work groups. One class of projects deals with investigations about France and the French. These projects are usually related to the context of situation presented in the dialogue and they often require the finding of documents on France. The second class of projects is purely pedagogical. It may consist in demonstrating a lesson

of the Nuffield Primary French course which corresponds to the grammatical structures studied in the unit of the training course. It may also require the trainees to produce supplementary materials in relation to the lesson they have presented.

2.3 Trainer's control over course materials

Each unit of work is organised to give maximum flexibility of use to the trainer according to the varying conditions of training (II: 1.4.3). The trainer's control can be exerted in varying degrees at several linguistic and non-linguistic levels.[1]

2.3.1 Language content

The trainer can use the course materials at will to extend the language taught much beyond the area circumscribed by the course since most of the materials offer a basis for expansion through the 4 stages. However, the trainer has little control over the basic language content of the course, i.e. that language which is based on our analysis of Primary French (II: 2). Each unit is centred on one or two grammatical points which are developed under various forms throughout the first three stages of the unit; therefore the design of the course channels the trainer into teaching the required syllabus whichever of the forms described above he may apply.

2.3.2 Method

The trainer can lay emphasis on pattern drilling in the classroom and in the laboratory at the expense of

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[1] The recent suggestion for learner-controlled rather than teacher-controlled courses deserves a comment. This implies the exposure of the student to a wide range of spoken and written language data which serve as 'raw material' for the development of linguistic competence. While this is an interesting notion, substantial evidence is required that it is more efficient in terms of learning rate and achievement. Such evidence is not so far as I am aware available.

other exercises in free expression. On the other hand, he may emphasize all the tasks aiming at individual expression and meaningful communication within the group. While the grammatical description on which the drills are based is spelled out in each objective, the trainer is free to teach grammar overtly or not. Since no grammar has been included in the trainees' manual, he is also free to use the type of grammar he prefers.

2.3.3 Grading

The trainer can control grading in two different ways: (1) by changing the order of the work units or the order of the teaching objectives, (2) by using the materials in a more gradual way (i.e. in breaking down the language description into smaller steps) or omitting drills, exercises and even stages.

CONCLUSION

To conclude this investigation, in-service training may be regarded as a practical proposition as a source of competent PF teachers provided the design of specific materials and the quality of the individuals being trained are carefully controlled. Therefore, in-service training can only be viewed in the context of selective staffing.

While the assessment of the trainees' language competence before or after a course does not present great technical difficulties, assessing their attitude to PF teaching is more difficult. It is the responsibility of the programme organisers to ensure that all prospective PF teachers are genuinely motivated. It is suggested that a positive attitude can be developed in many teachers if they can be convinced that their participation in a permanent and well-planned scheme is both worthwhile for their pupils and for themselves. Contributory to a favourable attitude are the understanding of what is involved, the ungrudging support of the school community and the official approval of higher educational authorities at national level.

If French is maintained as a permanent feature of primary education, it is likely that it will become part of the initial teacher-training course in which case the problems posed by the trainees' ability and attitude will gradually disappear. Younger teachers will then consider PF teaching, or the teaching of any other language for that matter, as much a part of the school day as any other subject. Until that time, however, in-service training will continue to be a necessity. If such a form of training is not to be economically wasteful and if the overall quality of PF programmes is to be maintained at a satisfactory level then the restrictive conditions specified in this study must be taken into account.

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